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ABSTRACT

This report provides an overview of the available racial and ethnic data on high school completion rates, college participation, college enrollment, degrees conferred, and employment in higher education for the period 1974-1994. Major data sources are reports of the U.S. Bureau of the Census and the National Center for Education Statistics. The report also includes a special focus on affirmative action and higher education. Trends identified include the following: high school completion rates increased for African Americans but declined for Hispanics; women continue to complete high school at higher rates than men with a 6 percent gap for Hispanics, 6.3 percent gap for African Americans, and a 3.9 percent gap for whites. The total college-age population continued to decline, falling 10 percent from 1984 to 1994 while total college enrollment declined slightly. All four major ethnic groups achieved enrollment growth, with Hispanics increasing 6.9 percent, Asian Americans 7.5 percent, and Hispanics 6.7 percent (at two-year institutions). The number of faculty of color increased 43.7 percent from 1983 to 1993, compared with a 6.4 percent increase for whites. Twenty-three tables of data and other tables and figures provide detailed statistical data. (Contains 70 references.) (JLS)

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Minorities in Higher Education

Deborah J. Carter
Reginald Wilson

HE 030 137

1995-96

Fourteenth Annual

Status Report

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Minorities in Higher Education

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Director

June 1996

1995-96

Fourteenth Annual

Status Report

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Acknowledgments

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Foreword

The American Council on Education (ACE) has been collecting and disseminating educational data on racial and ethnic minorities since the early 1980s. The purpose of this activity is not merely to satisfy a thirst for information, but to gauge the success of our enterprise in serving a diverse population and establish a baseline against which colleges and universities can measure the effectiveness of their own efforts.

This *Fourteenth Annual Status Report on Minorities in Higher Education* indicates that substantial progress has been made in recent years in advancing minority participation and success. Nevertheless, the picture is decidedly mixed for different groups, and the gap between minorities and whites on almost all measures is significant.

As the special focus section of this report demonstrates, affirmative action in admissions and employment has played a critical role in the progress we have made to date. Despite recent legal challenges to affirmative action and political attacks on its use, ACE remains outspoken in its belief that affirmative action is an effective tool to address racial and gender discrimination and educational, economic, and employment inequities.

ACE thanks The Coca-Cola Foundation for its financial support for the publication of this report and its broad support of education. With that support, we will continue to provide this essential barometer of the success of American higher education.

Robert H. Atwell
President, American Council on Education

In 1989, The Coca-Cola Foundation made a $50 million commitment to advance excellence in education in the 1990s. Education has always been an important focus of corporate responsibility throughout the Coca-Cola system. Improving access to quality education is often the shortest distance between two points when it comes to improving the quality of life for all citizens. We believe that by increasing individual opportunity, education can recast the economic and social future of the communities in which we live.

Part of our commitment to education has been to support innovative programs and scholarships that expand opportunities for all students with the will to succeed. These programs help students make successful transitions from one level of education to the next. And, these initiatives provide an educational roadmap for students so they can defy any detours they might encounter along the way to reaching their full potential.

One student at a time, one classroom at a time, we've seen the results that merit our continued investment. And if education is the spark behind individual opportunity and social progress, then one conclusion is compellingly clear: minority participation and success in higher education are more important than ever.

We are proud to support the important work that the American Council on Education is doing through its annual *Status Report on Minorities in Higher Education*. The report tells us that the momentum gained for African American, Latino, Asian American, American Indian, and other students in our increasingly diverse society must be sustained. This is the time to continue supporting the programs that work—and to take bold, intelligent risks on others that hold the same promise.

Ingrid Saunders Jones
Chairperson, The Coca-Cola Foundation

Executive Summary

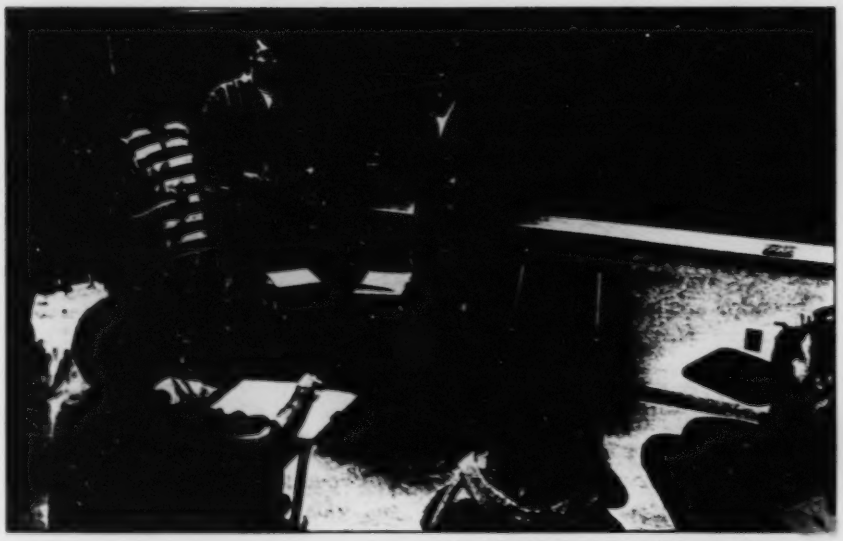
High School Completion

■ High school completion rates increased for African Americans ages 18 to 24 but declined for Hispanics in 1994. Both groups continued to trail whites — a trend evident during the past two decades. The high school completion rates for African Americans and Hispanics were 77 percent and 56.6 percent, respectively, in 1994. The rate for whites was 82.6 percent.

■ African Americans experienced a gain in high school completion rates of 2.1 percentage points in 1994, as both African American men and African American women showed improvement. The rate for African American women increased from 76.7 percent in 1993 to 80 percent in 1994, the highest rate since 1987. The rate for African American men increased less dramatically, from 72.8 percent to 73.7 percent.

■ The high school completion rate for Hispanics has fluctuated greatly during the past ten years. Approximately 56.6 percent of Hispanics ages 18 to 24 had completed high school in 1994, down from 60.9 percent in 1993. The 1994 rate, however, remains higher than the rates posted during the late 1980s and early 1990s.

■ Women continue to complete high school at higher rates than men in all groups. The gender gap in 1994 was 6.3 percentage points for African Americans, 6 percentage points for Hispanics, and 3.9 percentage points for whites.



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College Participation

■ The number of college-age youths declined slightly in 1994, with whites accounting for much of the decrease. The nation's college-age population shrank by 10 percent from 1984 to 1994, with the number of whites declining by 13.6 percent. The number of college-age African Americans also declined during this period, including a slight decrease in 1994. By comparison, the number of college-age Hispanics has increased by 74.6 percent since 1984 and by 28 percent since 1990.

■ African Americans and Hispanics continued to trail whites in their rates of college participation in 1994. Nearly 45 percent of white high school graduates ages 18 to 24 attended college, compared with 35.5 percent for African Americans and 33.2 percent for Hispanics.

■ Nonetheless, African Americans registered solid gains in 1994, posting their highest college participation rates ever among high school graduates. In addition, the 1994 improvement ends a period of stagnation dating back to 1990 for African Americans. The 1994 participation rate of 35.5 percent for African Americans was up nearly 3 percentage points from the 1993 figure.

■ Unlike whites and African Americans, Hispanics lost ground in terms of the college participation rates of high school graduates in 1994. Their rate of 33.2 percent in 1994 was down 2 percentage points from 1993 and 4 percentage points from 1992. The rate has fluctuated greatly, however, and Hispanics still show overall progress since 1990.

Photo Credit: University of Houston-Downtown

■ Both Hispanic men and Hispanic women contributed to their decline in college participation. Men showed a greater decrease for the year, thereby increasing the gender gap between Hispanic men and women.

College Enrollment

■ Total enrollment in higher education declined slightly in 1994, primarily because of a 1.7 percent decrease in white enrollment. Enrollment at two-year institutions declined slightly, while enrollment at four-year institutions remained largely unchanged. Public institutions also showed a slight enrollment decrease, while enrollment at independent institutions increased by almost 1 percent.

■ Students of color recorded a 4.9 percent enrollment gain for 1994, which was nearly double the increase for 1993. Men of color and women of color achieved one-year gains of 4.1 percent and 5.5 percent, respectively. Since 1990, minority students have shown an overall enrollment increase of 25.9 percent, with progress being made by both men and women.

■ All four major ethnic groups achieved enrollment growth in 1994, with Hispanics posting the largest overall increase (6.9 percent). Asian Americans had the largest increase at four-year institutions (7.5 percent), while the 6.7 percent increase for Hispanics at two-year institutions was the largest among the four major ethnic minority groups.

■ The 2.5 percent enrollment increase for African Americans in 1994 was the smallest for the four major ethnic groups. While African American enrollment has increased by 16.1 percent since 1990, this trails the rates of increase for Asian Americans, Hispanics, and American Indians.

■ Since 1990, Asian Americans and Hispanics have recorded the largest enrollment increases, with nearly identical gains of approximately 35 percent.

■ American Indians and Alaska Natives recorded a 5 percent increase in enrollment for 1994, yet they continue to represent less than 1 percent of all enrollments in higher education. Approximately 128,000 American Indian students attended a U.S. college or university in 1994.

■ An overwhelming majority of students of color—81.8 percent—attended public institutions in 1994. The rate for white students was 77.2 percent.

Degrees Conferred

■ Students of color achieved progress in four degree categories (associate, bachelor's, master's, and first-professional) from 1992 to 1993, led by a 13.9 percent increase at the first-professional level. Students of color also achieved increases of 10.4 percent in the number of master's degrees earned, 9.3 percent in the number of bachelor's degrees earned, and 8.6 percent in the number of associate degrees earned. The overall increase for minority students far exceeded the rate of progress for whites in the same four degree categories.

■ Both men of color and women of color experienced moderate gains in these four degree categories from 1992 to 1993. The largest gain for men of color was 10.8 percent at the master's degree level, while the largest increase for women of color was 18.4 percent at the first-professional degree level.

■ Students of color achieved a small increase in the total share of degrees conferred in 1993 compared with the previous year. Minorities earned 15.6 percent of all bachelor's degrees in 1993, up 1 percentage point from 1992. However, students of color accounted for 24 percent of all undergraduate students in 1993. As these figures show, the representation of minorities among degree recipients remains considerably lower than their share of total undergraduate enrollments.

■ African Americans experienced solid growth at these four degree levels in 1993, ranging from 7.4 percent at the associate degree level to 15.2 percent at the first-professional degree level. Nonetheless, African Americans had the slowest rate of growth of the four major ethnic minority groups at the bachelor's degree level.

■ African American men recorded moderate gains in four categories in 1993 and posted larger one-year increases than African American women in the number of associate and master's degrees earned. The gains among African American men in 1993 included double-digit growth of 12.7 percent at the master's level and 10.9 percent at the first-professional level.

■ In 1993, Hispanics achieved the largest gains among the four major ethnic minority groups in the numbers of associate, bachelor's, and master's degrees earned, with growth ranging from 11 percent to 14 percent in each category.

■ Both men and women contributed to this upward trend for Hispanics. In 1993, Hispanic men showed moderate progress in all categories, including gains of 12 percent in the number of associate degrees earned, 10.5 percent in the number of bachelor's degrees earned, and 14.6 percent in the number of master's degrees earned. Growth rates for Hispanic women in these categories were 11 percent, 12 percent, and 13.5 percent, respectively.

■ Asian Americans recorded one-year increases in all degree categories in 1993,

Photo credit: Moraine Valley Community College

Photo Credit: San Francisco State University

ranging from a low of 6.6 percent in the number of associate degrees earned to a high of 15.8 percent in the number of first-professional degrees earned.

■ Despite continued progress, American Indians earned only 0.5 percent of all degrees awarded at the bachelor's and first-professional levels, 0.4 percent of all master's degrees, and 0.9 percent of all associate degrees in 1993. American Indians made their largest gain at the first-professional level in 1993, while their smallest increase was at the associate degree level.

■ Students of color achieved gains in all six major fields of study from 1992 to 1993, at both the bachelor's and master's degree levels. The largest increase at the bachelor's level was 14.6 percent in life sciences, while the largest gains at the master's level were in business and health professions, at 15.6 percent each.

■ Engineering and education at both the bachelor's and master's degree levels showed the smallest increases among students of color. The number of engineering degrees awarded to students of color increased by 4 percent at the bachelor's level and by 5.7 percent at the master's level in 1993, while the number of education degrees awarded increased by 3.3 percent at the bachelor's level and by 7.5 percent at the master's level.

■ In education, Asian Americans posted the largest gains of the four major ethnic minority groups at both the bachelor's and master's degree levels. Hispanics experienced the largest increases in business and engineering at the bachelor's level. Though they were comparatively few in number, American Indians recorded the largest percentage growth in business and engineering at the master's level and in social sciences at both the bachelor's and master's levels.

■ Among U.S. citizens, students of color achieved a 47.9 percent gain in the number of doctoral degrees earned during the past decade, including a one-year gain of 4 percent from 1993 to 1994. Among the four major ethnic minority groups, only African Americans failed to make progress from 1993 to 1994, because of a decline in the number of doctorates awarded to African American men.

College Graduation

■ Data from National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) Division I institutions show that all four ethnic minority groups achieved progress in completing postsecondary education from 1990 to 1994. American Indians, African Americans, and Hispanics registered more progress in increasing their college graduation rates than did whites, who experienced an increase of 3 percentage points for the period.

■ Despite percentage gains, however, African Americans, American Indians, and Hispanics continue to trail whites in overall graduation rates at Division I institutions. The gap in graduation rates between African Americans and whites was more than 20 percentage points in 1994, and a similar gap was evident between American Indians and whites. The gap between Hispanics and whites was 14 percentage points at Division I institutions in 1994. By comparison, Asian Americans posted the highest graduation rate of all groups in 1994.

■ All four ethnic minority groups had higher graduation rates at independent colleges and universities than at public institutions. Nonetheless, rates among men and women of color increased at both types of institutions between 1990 and 1994.

EMPLOYMENT IN HIGHER EDUCATION

Faculty

■ The number of full-time faculty of color increased by 43.7 percent from 1983 to 1993, compared with an increase of 6.4 percent for whites. From 1991 to 1993, however, the increase for

Photo credit: University of Maryland at Baltimore

faculty of color was only 1.2 percent, less than half of the 2.7 percent increase for whites. A slight decline in faculty employment among men of color from 1991 to 1993 accounted for the slow growth during this two-year period.

■ Despite progress during the past decade, persons of color represented only 12.2 percent of all full-time faculty and 9.2 percent of full professors in 1993.

■ Breaking with a recent trend, faculty of color achieved their largest gains at the full professor and associate professor levels from 1991 to 1993. By comparison, fewer faculty of color were employed at the assistant professor and instructor/lecturer levels in 1993 than in 1991.

■ All four major ethnic minority groups achieved substantial growth at the full professor level from 1991 to 1993. Progress ranged from a low of 10.4 percent for Asian Americans to a high of 26.7 percent for African Americans, with the numbers of African American men and women at the full professor level growing significantly.

■ The number of full-time African American faculty increased by 31.1 percent from 1983 to 1993. Nonetheless, African Americans showed the least progress among the four major ethnic minority groups during this period. From 1991 to 1993, African Americans achieved a gain in faculty representation of 4.3 percent, with African American men making less progress than African American women—2.1 percent and 6.7 percent, respectively. Most of this decrease occurred at the assistant professor and other faculty levels.

■ From 1991 to 1993, Hispanics achieved a 5.7 percent gain in full-time faculty representation. Most of the progress came from increases among Hispanic women. The number of Hispanic female faculty increased by 13.2 percent during the two-year period, compared with a mere 1.5 percent increase for Hispanic males.

■ From 1991 to 1993, American Indians recorded the largest percentage gain in faculty representation among the four major ethnic groups. Nonetheless, they account for less than one in 200 full-time faculty in higher education.

■ The number of Asian American faculty decreased by 4.8 percent from 1991 to 1993, primarily due to a 7.7 percent decrease in the number of Asian American men. The largest declines for Asian American men occurred at the assistant professor and other faculty levels during this period.

Tenure

■ Tenure rates increased slightly among all faculty from 1991 to 1993. The tenure rate for faculty of color increased by 3 percentage points during this period, which was higher than the 1 percentage point increase for all faculty. Despite this improvement, ten-year trends show a slight decline in tenure rates for faculty of color, from 63 percent to 62 percent. Tenure rates for whites increased by 1 percentage point during this period, to 73 percent.

■ The gap in tenure rates between men of color and women of color increased between 1991 and 1993, as men demonstrated greater progress. Among men of color, 66 percent held tenured positions in 1993, compared with only 56 percent for women of color. White males also were more likely than white females to gain tenure during this period.

Administrators

■ The number of administrators of color increased by 55.7 percent from 1983 to 1993, including a gain of 4.3 percent in the two-year period from 1991 to 1993. Persons of color represented 13.7 percent of all administrators in higher education in 1993, up from 13.2 percent in 1991 and 10.3 percent in 1983.

■ Women of color accounted for most of the gains among minorities. The number of female administrators of color nearly doubled from 1983 to 1993, while the number of male administrators of color increased by 32 percent. Women of color experienced an increase of 5.9 percent from 1991 to 1993, compared with a 2.8 percent gain among men of color in the same period.

■ African American women outnumber African American men among college and university administrators. However, males outnumber females among Hispanic, Asian American, and American Indian administrators.

■ African Americans, Hispanics, Asian Americans, and American Indians accounted for 11.5 percent of all chief executive officers (CEOs) at colleges and universities in 1996. This rate is up from 8.1 percent in 1986 and 9.2 percent in 1990. Most African American CEOs are at historically black colleges and universities, however, and American Indian leaders are most likely to direct tribal colleges.

SPECIAL FOCUS: AFFIRMATIVE ACTION AND HIGHER EDUCATION

History

■ The practice of affirmative action began without a clear sense of its final scope or full intent, and evolved into the present complex system of laws and executive orders. However, the purpose always was clear: to overcome America's past history of slavery, peonage, racism, and legally sanctioned segregation, which barred blacks and other people of

Photo credit: Penn College

color and women of all races from full participation in the work force and in America's educational institutions.

■ In the 1940s, Executive Order 8802, which barred discrimination on the basis of race or national origin in government contracting, and the G.I. Bill provided the first significant opening of employment and education for blacks since Reconstruction. The momentous event of the 1950s was the *Brown* decision, which began the desegregation of American life. The *Brown* decision remains a landmark in American jurisprudence. It was from this threshold that the momentum was generated that led to the civil rights movement and eventually to affirmative action.

■ The term "affirmative action" came into being with President John F. Kennedy's issuance of Executive Order 10925 in 1961, but it did not have more than symbolic effect until President Lyndon B. Johnson's more definitive Executive Order 11246 in 1965, which remains operative today. This order required public and private institutions that contract with the federal government to file affirmative action plans and to take affirmative action to seek out and employ qualified and underrepresented minorities (women were added in 1967 with Executive Order 11375).

■ Affirmative action in student admissions is shaped by the 1978 *Regents of the University of California v. Bakke* decision, in which the Supreme Court held constitutional the objective of fostering student body diversity, where race is used as a "plus factor" in admissions. The court held the use of specific quotas for minority students unconstitutional.

■ Affirmative action had its greatest impact in its early years, from 1965 to 1975. It languished between 1975 and 1980 and came under increasing attack between 1980 and 1992. Despite the Clinton administration's support for affirmative action, the attack has been sustained since 1992 by its opponents.

The Continuing Need

■ Discriminatory employment practices remain pervasive. The Glass Ceiling Commission, launched by the Bush administration, found that progress toward shattering the glass ceiling that blocks women and minorities from the upper levels of corporate management was disappointingly slow, even though most corporate chief executives say they believe the problem has been solved for women.

■ Minorities and women continue to suffer pay inequities. A recent study found that despite increased academic achievement among African Americans over the past 20 years, the disparity in hourly wages paid to college-educated blacks and whites has widened. Employment salary data also show gaps in the pay of men and women. The average woman loses approximately $420,000 over a lifetime due to unequal pay practices.

■ Despite minority employment growth, faculty of color continue to be grossly underrepresented in American higher education, and, with the exception of Asian American faculty, their respective shares of faculty positions increased rather slowly during the 1980s and early 1990s. Minorities—particularly women of color—also are clustered on the lower rungs of the professoriate as assistant professors and non-tenure track lecturers, and their presence on many predominantly white campuses is tenuous at best.

■ A study of faculty hiring practices in colleges and universities found that once a minority hiring goal was met, departments stopped seeking out minority applicants and, indeed, pulled their ads from minority publications, regardless of the number of vacancies that occurred subsequently.

■ Approximately 23 percent of all high school graduates are American Indian, Hispanic, or African American. Yet, the participation rates for these groups have remained low on most predominantly white four-year campuses despite a larger pool of minority high school students who are better prepared academically. Students from these underrepresented groups account for only 12 percent of the enrollments at predominantly white four-year campuses.

Perspectives on Misperceptions about Minority Gains

■ In higher education, as in other areas, it is the perception of lost position rather than the reality that fuels anger and backlash. The growth of minority participation in higher educa-

Photo credit: Community College of Rhode Island

tion has been moderate at best, but it is the perception of the loss of majority privilege that politicians have seized upon and heightened.

■ Nearly 15 million students now are enrolled in college, and despite continued disparities in minority and white college-going rates, participation by every racial group has increased in recent years. That is partly what the anger on campuses is about—not that minorities are taking white students' places, but that whites, and everyone else, want even more spaces.

■ A 1995 analysis by the Labor Department found that affirmative action programs do not lead to widespread reverse discrimination claims by whites, and a high proportion of such claims that are filed are found to lack merit. The findings contradicted charges that affirmative action has helped minorities at the expense of white males. The analysis found that fewer than 100 out of 3,000 discrimination cases filed involved reverse discrimination, and in only six cases were such claims substantiated.

■ Yet, despite the negative publicity that has been generated around affirmative action, and depending upon how the question is phrased, polls consistently show that Americans, by a three to two margin, support affirmative action programs as long as they do not involve quotas.

The Present Legal Status of Affirmative Action

■ Neither of the two most recent affirmative action rulings—*Podberesky v. Kirwan* and *Adarand v. Peña*—invalidates Justice Powell's controlling opinion in *Bakke*, in which he argued that "the benefits of integrated education accrue to all students, and...affirmative action to increase diversity was appropriate."

■ Aside from the strictly legal status of affirmative action is its more ominous status in state legislatures, where many legislators are riding the wave of anti-affirmative action sentiment. Legislation, executive orders, and/or state initiatives addressing affirmative action are under consideration in at least 13 states, including California, Colorado, Florida, Georgia, Illinois, Louisiana, Michigan, Oregon, New York, North Carolina, Pennsylvania, South Carolina, and Washington.

■ At the national level, Senator Robert Dole (R-KS) and Representative Charles Canady (R-FL) have introduced the "Equal Opportunity Act of 1995," which, despite its name, would prohibit considering gender, race, or ethnicity in federal contracts, employment, and other programs. This legislation would devastate the existing Executive Order 11246, as well as the civil rights enforcement policies of the past seven Republican and Democratic presidents. It also would eliminate the use of affirmative action to remedy past discrimination and outlaw programs that adhere to the "strict scrutiny" standard set by the Supreme Court.

The Success and Promise of Affirmative Action

■ Affirmative action has had measurable results in moving minorities and women into meaningful employment in industry and in increasing their participation in higher education as students, faculty, and administrators.

■ In addition to increases in college enrollments and in graduation rates for students of color, individual affirmative action and diversity programs at myriad campuses have proven successful. However, few such programs adequately document their results. Some programs prepare underrepresented minorities for competitive institutions, while other programs use special initiatives to raise minority achievement to the level of majority achievement once students are admitted, usually through affirmative action. Still others focus on increasing the numbers of minority doctorate recipients.

Recommendations

■ We now have a conservative majority in Congress, and leading politicians are speaking out against affirmative action. At a time when affirmative action most needs momentum and an acceleration of effort to continue the job, it is coming under attack from vocal critics. What needs to be done—particularly in higher education?

– College and university presidents have a special opportunity and responsibility to present the educational benefits of affirmative action to their campuses and to the communities where the campuses are located.

– It is the job of faculty and administrators to present the historical reasons for affirmative action, as well as its appropriate application.

– Students have an obligation to educate themselves about issues regarding affirmative action and to speak out on their campuses about the importance of providing equal educational opportunities accompanied by programs to promote success.

– Governing board members have a responsibility to educate themselves about the meaning of affirmative action and its legal requirements, and to support its implementation.

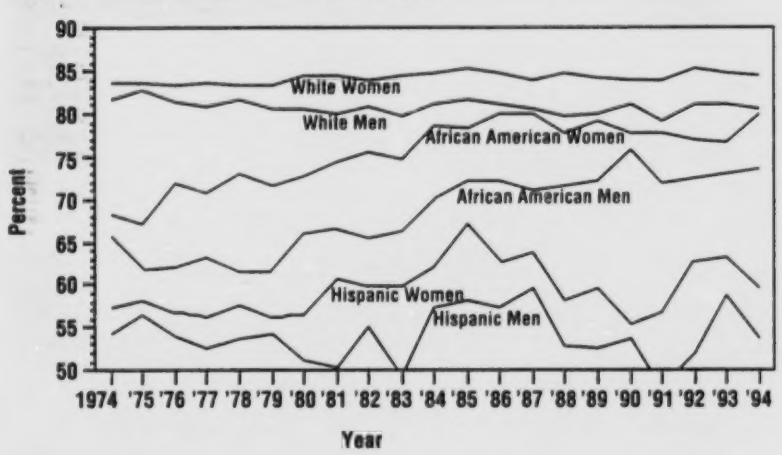
– Higher education association staffs must be knowledgeable and articulate about all the dimensions of affirmative action. Association statements supporting affirmative action and its educational efficacy are crucial.

High School Completion Rates

This section of the report provides an overview of the most recent high school completion rates for white, African American, and Hispanic 18- to 24-year-olds in the United States. Using the U.S. Census Bureau's Current Population Survey (CPS), this review includes students who earned either a high school diploma or an equivalency degree, such as the General Educational Development (GED) certificate. CPS data do not cover Asian Americans or American Indians in this age group because the survey sample is too small to provide reliable estimates.

Statistical data from CPS vary widely from year to year, and the figures cited here are national aggregates. High school completion rates for some racial and ethnic groups in many urban and rural areas are lower than national aggregates.

Figure 1
High School Completion Rates by Race, Ethnicity, and Gender, 1974 to 1994



Source: *U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census. School Enrollment—Social and Economic Characteristics of Students: October 1994. Current Population Report, Series P-20.*

CPS data for 1994 continue to show that African Americans and Hispanics trail whites in rates of high school completion, a trend evident during the past two decades. African Americans showed steady progress of 10 percentage points from 1974 to 1994, but most of this progress occurred prior to 1990 (Table 1). Data for 1994 show that 77 percent of African Americans ages 18 to 24 completed high school, identical to the rate in 1990.

By comparison, high school completion (HSC) rates for 18- to 24-year-old Hispanics have fluctuated greatly since the early 1980s (Figure 1). In 1994, 56.6 percent of Hispanics ages 18 to 24 had completed high school, a decline of more than 4 percentage points from 1993. Nonetheless, the 1993 rate was the highest for Hispanics since the mid 1980s, and Hispanics show an overall increase of 2 percentage points for the 1990s thus far.

The completion rate for whites remained largely unchanged in 1994 at 82.6 percent, nearly identical to the rate posted in 1990. Whites, however, continue to post high school completion rates higher than those for the other two groups.

Women in all three groups continued to post higher HSC rates than men. In 1994, the gender gap was 6.3 percentage points for African Americans, 6 percentage points for Hispanics, and 3.9 percentage points for whites (Table 2). Nationwide, white females have the highest high school completion rates among all groups (84.6 percent).

African Americans

■ Census data show that African Americans experienced a moderate gain in the rate of high school completion, from 74.9 percent in 1993 to 77 percent in 1994 (Table 1). This increase reverses a downward trend since 1990, when the completion rate also was 77 percent.

■ The high school completion rate for African American women increased by more than 3 percentage points in 1994,

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Photo credit: Southern Methodist University

to 80 percent (Table 2). African American women experienced their first increase in high school completion rates since 1989, and the 80 percent figure is the highest since the mid 1980s.

■ African American men showed a small gain for the third consecutive year, posting a 1994 HSC rate of 73.7 percent (Table 2). These gains, however, have yet to reverse a decline of 4 percentage points reported in 1991, when the rate fell from nearly 76 percent to 71.8 percent.

■ Larger gains by women from 1993 to 1994 increased the gender gap between African American men and women to 6.3 percentage points, up from 3.9 percentage points in 1993 and 4.5 percentage points the previous year.

Hispanics

■ The high school completion rate for Hispanics has fluctuated greatly over the past ten years, and that trend continued in 1994. The most recent data for Hispanics show an HSC rate of 56.6 percent in 1994, down more than 4 percentage points from the previous year (Table 1). Hispanics posted this decline after gaining more than 3 percentage points in 1993. Hispanics also continue to trail African Americans and whites in high school completion rates by large margins.

■ The completion rate for Hispanic men fell by 5 percentage points in 1994, nearly reversing the gain of 6.8 percentage points achieved in 1993 (Table 2). Despite the fluctuations, the HSC rate for Hispanic men in 1994 was similar to the rate in 1990.

■ Hispanic women experienced their first decline in HSC in four years (Table 2). The 1994 rate of 59.8 percent was down more than 3 percentage points from 1993. As a result, the HSC rate for Hispanic women dipped below 60 percent for the first time since the late 1980s and early 1990s.

■ The larger decline for Hispanic men in 1994 increased the gender gap in Hispanic HSC rates. This gap was 6 percentage points in 1994, up from 4.5 percentage points in 1993 but below the 10.8 percent gap reported in 1992.

College Participation Rates

College participation rates provide important insights when evaluating the access students of color have to higher education. Unlike enrollment figures, which track college attendance during a specific period of time, participation rates include both current enrollment and the recent college attendance patterns of college-age youths—generally, the 18- to 24-year-old population.

The U.S. Census Bureau makes available three types of college participation rates: the percentage of all 18- to 24-year-olds enrolled in college; the percentage of high school graduates ages 18 to 24 enrolled in college; and the percentage of high school graduates ages 14 to 24 who are enrolled in college or who have completed at least one year of postsecondary education. This third category is known generally as the "ever-enrolled-in-college" rate.

This section focuses primarily on the percentage of 18- to 24-year-old high school graduates enrolled in college but includes some discussion of the other categories of college participation, including the "ever-enrolled" rate. Readers should view all of this information cautiously, however, because it provides only a general profile of participation rates.[1]

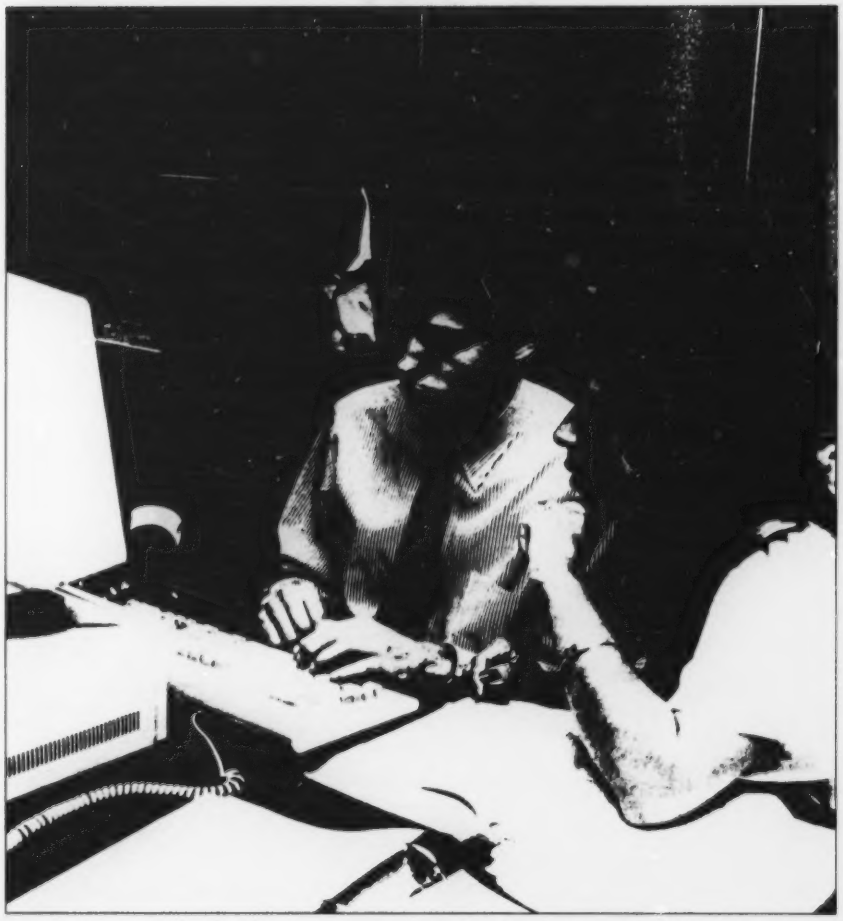


Photo credit: University of Houston-Downtown

Nationwide, 1994 data show that the number of college-age youths decreased slightly from the previous year, primarily because of decreases in the number of whites. Since 1984, the number of college-age youths ages 18 to 24 declined by 10 percent, with whites reporting a decrease of 13.6 percent (Table 1). Nonetheless, most of this overall decline occurred during the 1980s. The number of youths in the nation's college-age population has remained fairly steady since 1990.

The number of African Americans ages 18 to 24 remained approximately the same in 1994, after two years of small increases. Since 1990, the number of African American 18- to 24-year-olds has grown by approximately 4 percent. By comparison, the number of Hispanics ages 18 to 24 has increased at the much faster rate of 28 percent since 1990. Data for the 1993–94 period, however, show a one-year decline of 4 percent among Hispanics.

Despite the downward population trends for 1994, the most recent data indicate that more high school gradu-

ates reported participation in college or university study. More than 42 percent of 18- to 24-year-old high school graduates participated in postsecondary education, the highest rate ever recorded. The 1994 figure surpassed the previous high mark of 41.9 percent for 1992 and was 1 percentage point above the rate reported in 1993 (Table 1).

African Americans experienced the most progress among the three major groups and the highest rate ever reported for this group in the survey. Nonetheless, they still trail whites, who recorded an increase of 1.1 percentage points to 42.7 percent. Hispanics reported their second consecutive decline in college participation rates after posting their best mark of 37.1 percent in 1992.

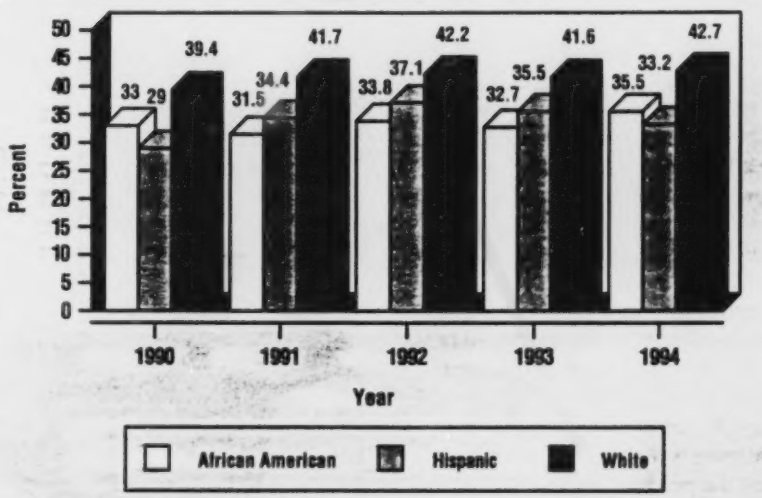
African Americans

■ The 35.5 percent rate for African American high school graduates represents an increase of nearly 3 percentage points from the previous year, ending a period of stagnation dating to 1990 (Figure 2).

■ African American men posted a gain of 3.3 percentage points for the year (Table 2). African American women regained some of the ground they lost in 1993 by showing an increase of 2.5 percentage points. Their 1994 rate of 36.4 percent is second only to the 1992 rate of 37.5 percent.

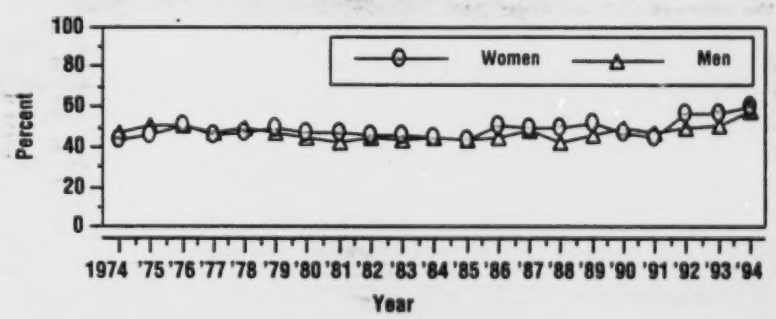
■ Both African American men and African American women showed gains in the "ever-enrolled-in-college" rate. More than 59 percent of African Americans ages 14 to 24 say they have enrolled in postsecondary education at some point (Table 1). This "ever-enrolled" rate (59.2 percent) represents an increase of more than 5 percentage points in one year and an increase of more than 11 percentage points since 1990.

Figure 2
Enrolled-in-College Participation Rates for 18- to 24-Year-Old High School Graduates by Race/Ethnicity, 1990 to 1994



Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census. School Enrollment—Social and Economic Characteristics of Students: October 1994. Current Population Reports, Series P-20.

Figure 3
Percentage of African American High School Graduates Who Enrolled in College for One or More Years, 1974 to 1994



Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census. School Enrollment—Social and Economic Characteristics of Students: October 1994. Current Population Reports, Series P-20.

■ Nearly 58 percent of African American male high school graduates ages 14 to 24 reported attending college for at least one year (Table 2), also the highest rate in the survey's history (Figure 3). This figure represents a one-year increase of nearly 8 percentage points. It should be noted, however, that rates may vary considerably from year to year and large one-year increases should be viewed with caution.

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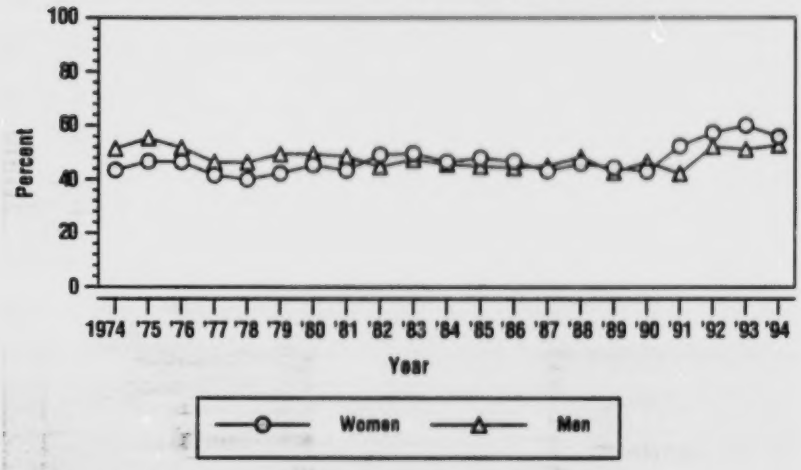
Figure 4
Percentage of Hispanic High School Graduates Who Enrolled in College for One or More Years, 1974 to 1994



Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census. School Enrollment—Social and Economic Characteristics of Students: October 1994. Current Population Reports, Series P-20.

■ More than 60 percent of African American female high school graduates ages 14 to 24 report attending college at some time for at least one year, the first time they have surpassed the 60 percent level.

Hispanics

■ The 1994 college participation rate of 33.2 percent for Hispanic high school graduates ages 18 to 24 is a decline of more than 2 percentage points from 1993 (Table 1). Participation rates for Hispanics have varied widely since 1990, from a low of 29 percent in 1990 to a high of 37.1 percent in 1992.

■ Both Hispanic men and Hispanic women recorded declines in 1994 from 1993. A larger decline among men increased the gender gap between Hispanic men and women to more than 5 percentage points, more than double the gender gap for African Americans and whites.

■ Hispanic men posted a college participation rate of 30.6 percent in 1994, down 3 percentage points from 1993. This rate, however, is still slightly above the 28.4 percent rate reported in 1990.

■ The 36 percent rate for Hispanic women is a decrease of approximately 1 percentage point from 1993. However, Hispanic women have shown an overall gain of 6 percentage points since 1990.

■ Hispanics also registered decreases in the "ever-enrolled-in-college" rate, although the 54.3 percent recorded in 1994 is still far above the 44.7 percent posted in 1990.

■ The "ever-enrolled-in-college" rate (percentage who enrolled in college for one or more years) among Hispanics for 1994 showed different trends by gender (Figure 4). The "ever-enrolled" rate for Hispanic men was 52.7 percent, an increase from 51.2 percent the previous year. The rate for women, however, declined by nearly 4.2 percentage points during that year, to 55.9 percent.

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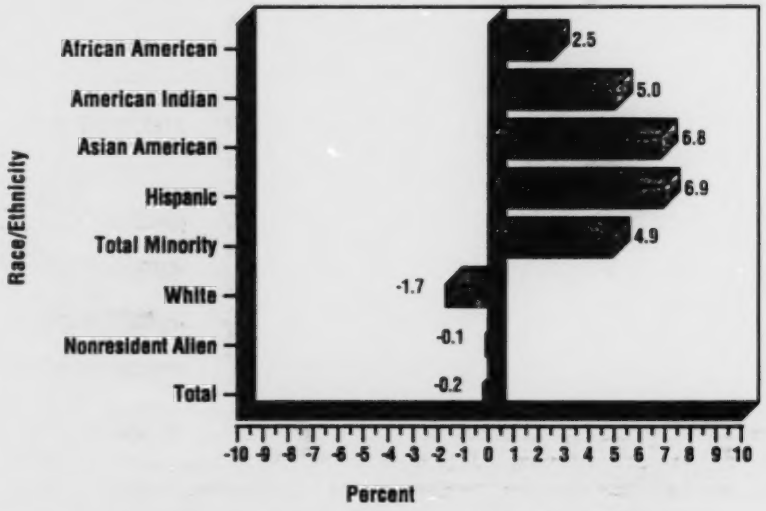
College Enrollment Trends

While college participation rates for students of color fluctuated greatly over the past ten years, college enrollment figures show a steady increase for students of color since the mid-1980s. Enrollment among all four major ethnic minority groups collectively increased 63.4 percent during the past ten years, including an increase of 25.9 percent during the past four years (Table 3). The gains continued from 1993 to 1994 at a rate of 4.9 percent. This 1994 gain for students of color was nearly twice as large as the gain in 1993 but was below the 7.1 and 9.1 percent increases for 1992 and 1991, respectively.

College enrollment among all students remained largely unchanged in 1994 after showing a slight decline (1 percent) in 1993. The main reason for the stagnation in college enrollment is the declining enrollment of whites, who represent a smaller percentage of the general college-age population. Whites experienced a slight decrease (1.7 percent) in college enrollment from 1993 to 1994. Slower enrollment growth for students of color in the 1990s also is a factor in this stagnation. Overall, total enrollment at both four-year and two-year colleges and universities was largely unchanged between 1993 and 1994.

All four major ethnic minority groups achieved small to moderate gains in college enrollment for 1994 (Figure 5). Hispanics and Asian Americans recorded the largest gains of 6.9 percent and 6.8 percent, respectively. Asian Americans had the largest one-year gain at four-year colleges and universities, while Hispanics achieved the greatest increase at two-year institutions.

Figure 5
Changes in Enrollment by Race/Ethnicity, 1993 to 1994



Source: National Center for Education Statistics. Enrollment in Higher Education by Race/Ethnicity: Fall 1986 through Fall 1994. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Education, 1996.

African Americans had the smallest gains among the four major ethnic minority groups in higher education, with overall enrollment growth of 2.5 percent. American Indians achieved a 5 percent gain in enrollment from 1993 to 1994.

Both minority men and minority women experienced small gains in enrollment from 1993 to 1994 (Table 4). Women of color achieved an increase of 5.5 percent for the year, while the gain for men of color was 4.1 percent.

Students of color recorded enrollment gains at the undergraduate, graduate, and professional levels in 1994 (Table 5). The largest increase was 10.3 percent at the graduate level, followed by 6.7 percent at professional schools. By comparison, the increase at undergraduate institutions was 4.5 percent.

Minority students demonstrated slightly more gains at independent institutions than at public institutions from 1993 to 1994 (5.3 percent and 4.9 percent, respectively) (Table 4). Nonetheless, students of color still rely primarily on lower-cost public institutions, which accounted for 81.8 percent of minority enrollments in 1994.

African Americans

■ After reaching a low point in enrollment in 1984, African Americans

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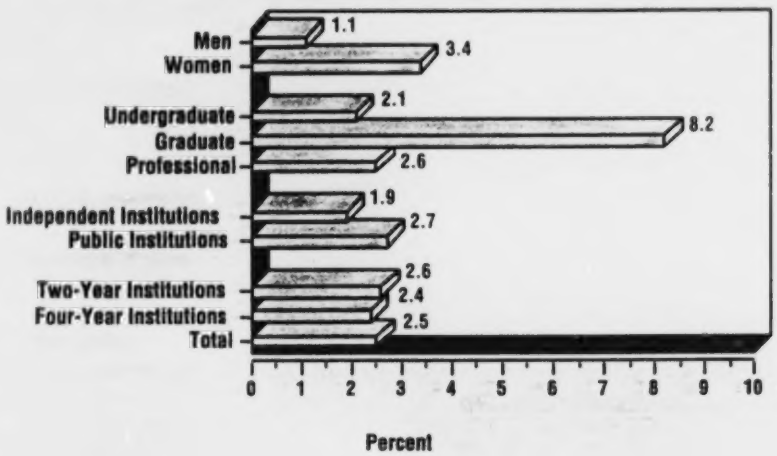
Figure 6
Changes in African American Enrollments by Gender, Degree Level, and Type of Institution, 1993 to 1994



Source: National Center for Education Statistics. Enrollment in Higher Education by Race/Ethnicity: Fall 1986 through Fall 1994. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Education, 1996.

achieved a steady enrollment increase of 34.6 percent over the past decade, including a small gain in 1994.

■ African Americans' enrollment gain of 2.5 percent in 1994 represented the smallest gain among the four major ethnic minority groups for the fourth consecutive year. Since 1990, enrollment for African Americans has increased by 16.1 percent.

■ African Americans achieved a 2.6 percent gain in enrollment at two-year colleges in 1994 (Figure 6). Since 1990, African Americans have posted a 17.4 percent gain at two-year institutions. Two-year institutions enrolled 42.5 percent of African American college students in 1994.

■ An enrollment increase of 2.4 percent for African Americans at four-year institutions in 1994 trailed the growth rates for Hispanics, Asian Americans, and American Indians. Nonetheless, African Americans have achieved a steady gain of 15.4 percent at these institutions since 1990.

■ African Americans experienced a 2.7 percent increase in enrollment at public institutions from 1993 to 1994, a rate greater than the 1.9 percent growth rate at independent colleges and universities. In 1994, public institutions enrolled 79 percent of all African American students.

■ African Americans achieved an 8.2 percent increase in graduate school enrollment, compared with a 2.5 percent increase at professional schools and a 2.1 percent increase for undergraduate education (Table 5). Since 1990, the numbers of African Americans attending graduate and professional schools have increased by more than 30 percent, about twice the rate of growth at the undergraduate level. However, African Americans represented only 6.4 percent of all graduate students and only 7.1 percent of students at professional schools in 1994, compared with 10.1 percent of all undergraduates.

■ Despite showing increases, African Americans in 1994 posted the smallest percentage gains in undergraduate, graduate, and professional enrollments among the four ethnic minority groups.

■ African American women recorded a 3.4 percent increase in college enrollment in 1994, compared with an increase of 1.1 percent for African American men (Table 4). Since 1990, African American women have achieved an 18 percent enrollment increase, compared with a 13.4 percent increase for African American men.

■ Enrollment of African American students at historically black colleges and universities (HBCUs) declined slightly in 1994, the first decrease in ten years (Table 6). Since 1990, however, African Americans show a total gain in enrollment at HBCUs of 10.4 percent.

■ HBCUs enrolled 15.8 percent of all African Americans at colleges and universities in 1994, a slight decline from 16.3 percent in 1993.

■ Fewer African American men and African American women enrolled at HBCUs in 1994, with both public and independent black colleges reporting slight decreases (Table 7). Both men and women lost ground at public institutions. African American women recorded a slight gain at independent HBCUs, but the increase was not enough to overcome a 1.9 percent drop among African American men.

Hispanics

■ The 6.9 percent enrollment increase for Hispanics was the largest gain among the four major ethnic minority groups during 1994. Since 1990, the number of Hispanics enrolled in higher education has increased by 35 percent.

■ Hispanics experienced an enrollment gain of 7.1 percent at four-year institutions from 1993 to 1994, which was larger than their 6.7 percent increase in enrollment at two-year institutions (Figure 7). Nonetheless, a majority of Hispanic students (56.2 percent) were enrolled at two-year colleges in 1994.

■ Enrollment of Hispanics during the past decade has doubled at two-year institutions and has increased by 88.2 percent at four-year colleges and universities. Hispanics narrowly trail Asian Americans for the fastest rate of growth in higher education since 1984.

■ Hispanics achieved a 6.7 percent increase in undergraduate enrollment in 1994, the largest gain among the four

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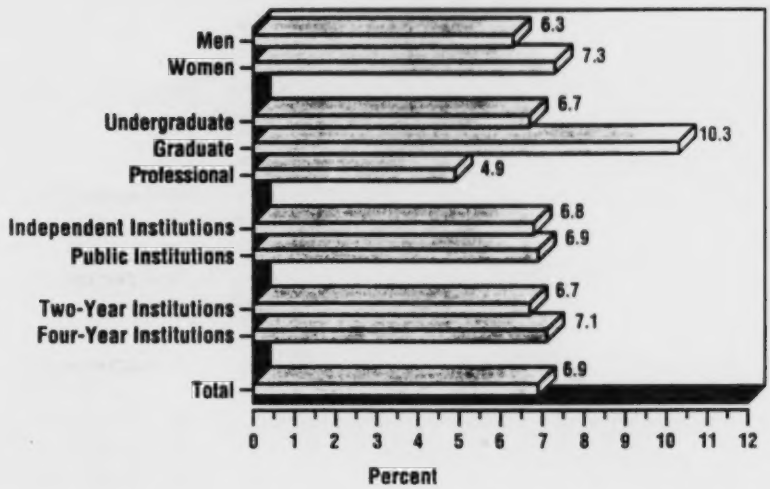
Figure 7
Changes in Hispanic Enrollments by Gender, Degree Level, and Type of Institution, 1993 to 1994



Source: National Center for Education Statistics. Enrollment in Higher Education: Fall 1986 through Fall 1994. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Education, 1996.

major ethnic minority groups. Since 1990, Hispanics have posted an increase of 35 percent at this level.

■ Hispanics made the most progress at the graduate level in 1994, posting a one-year increase of 10.3 percent. The 81.3 percent increase recorded by Hispanics in graduate school enrollment since 1984 is larger than the comparable growth rate for Asian American, African American, and American Indian students.

■ Despite such progress, Hispanics continue to be underrepresented throughout higher education, making up only 3.7 percent of all graduate students, 8 percent of all undergraduate students, and 4.4 percent of professional school students.

■ Hispanic men and women in 1994 experienced enrollment increases of 6.3 percent and 7.3 percent, respectively. Since 1990, Hispanic men have recorded a 32.5 percent increase in enrollment and Hispanic women have recorded a 37 percent increase.

■ Hispanics recorded nearly identical growth at public and independent institutions of higher education in 1994. However, Hispanics still tend to rely heavily on lower-cost public institutions. Overall, 86.1 percent of Hispanic students attended public colleges and universities in 1994.

Asian Americans

■ The number of Asian Americans enrolled in higher education increased by 6.8 percent in 1994. Since 1990, Asian Americans have showed a total enrollment increase of 35.1 percent, and the number of Asian Americans at colleges and universities has nearly doubled since 1984, from 390,000 to 774,000. Asian Americans represented 5.4 percent of all college students in 1994, compared with 3.2 percent in 1984.

■ Asian Americans recorded an increase of 7.5 percent at four-year institutions, the largest gain among the four major ethnic minority groups. A gain of 5.8 percent for Asian Americans at two-year institutions trailed only the growth rate of Hispanics for 1994. Since 1990, the number of Asian Americans at two-year institutions has increased by 45.1 percent, and at four-year institutions, their number has increased by 29.4 percent. Nonetheless, the majority of Asian American students continued to attend four-year colleges and universities in 1994; only 40.3 percent attended two-year institutions.

■ Asian American women achieved more progress in enrollment than did Asian American men. The number of Asian American women in higher education increased by 40 percent from 1990 to 1994, including a gain of 7.7 percent in 1994. The number of Asian American men increased by 30.5 percent since 1990 and by 6 percent from 1993 to 1994 (Table 4).

■ A 10.2 percent increase for Asian Americans at independent institutions was the highest rate among the four major ethnic groups. Asian American enrollment at public institutions increased by 6 percent in 1994.

■ Asian Americans posted double-digit gains of 11.2 percent at the graduate level and 10.4 percent at the professional level in 1994 (Figure 8). The comparable increase at the undergraduate level was 6.2 percent.

■ The number of Asian Americans at professional schools has tripled since 1984, including an increase of 47.4 percent since 1990. Enrollment at undergraduate and graduate schools has increased at slower rates, both for the decade and since 1990.

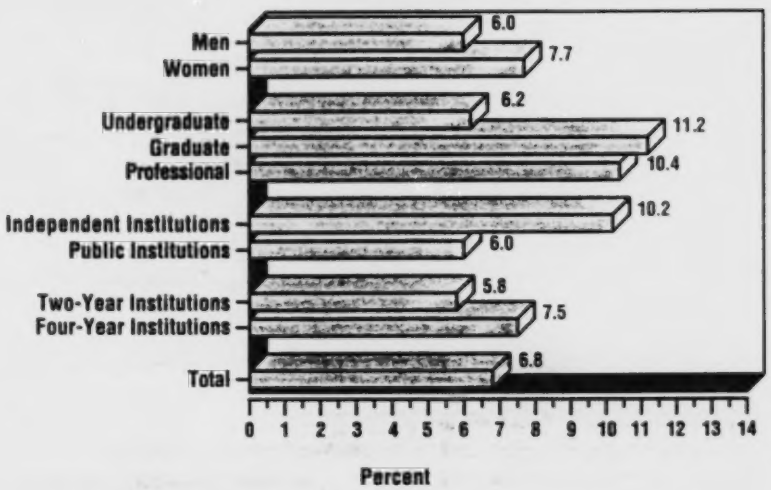
American Indians

■ American Indians and Alaska Natives posted a 5 percent gain in college and university enrollment in 1994, although they continue to represent less than 1 percent of all students in higher education. The 1994 increase raised total American Indian enrollment to 128,000 in 1994 (Table 3).

■ Since 1990, the number of American Indians in higher education has increased by 24.3 percent, a rate that trails Hispanics and Asian Americans but that ranks ahead of African Americans for this period.

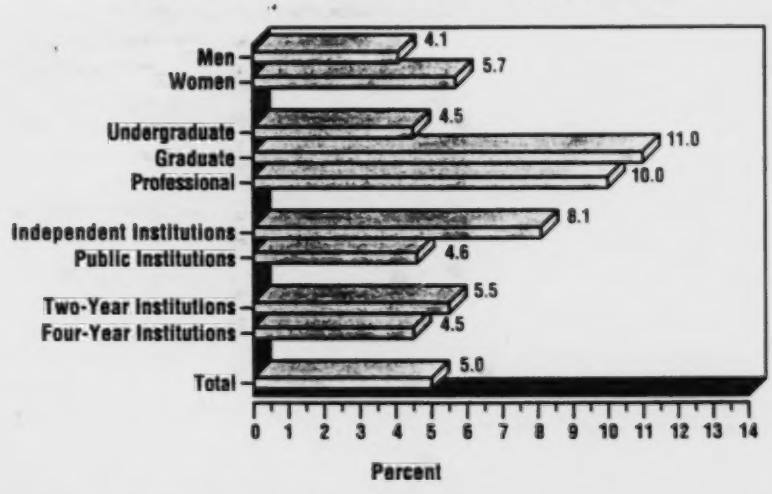
■ After experiencing a slight decline in 1993, American Indians posted a

Figure 8
Changes in Asian American Enrollments by Gender, Degree Level, and Type of Institution, 1993 to 1994



Source: National Center for Education Statistics. Enrollment in Higher Education: Fall 1986 through Fall 1994. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Education, 1996.

Figure 9
Changes in American Indian Enrollments by Gender, Degree Level, and Type of Institution, 1993 to 1994



Source: National Center for Education Statistics. Enrollment in Higher Education: Fall 1986 through Fall 1994. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Education, 1996.

5.5 percent increase in enrollment at two-year colleges in 1994 (Figure 9).

■ American Indians recorded greater increases at two-year campuses than at four-year institutions in 1994, breaking with their recent trend of making more enrollment progress at four-year colleges and universities. Since 1990, the number of American Indians has increased by 27.1 percent at four-year colleges and by 21.8 percent at two-year institutions. Nonetheless, two-year colleges continued to enroll a slight majority of American Indian students (52.3 percent) in 1994.

■ An 8.1 percent enrollment increase at independent institutions was nearly double the rate of increase for American Indians attending public institutions during 1994. However, independent institutions continued to enroll only a small percentage of American Indian students (13.3 percent) that year.

■ American Indian women posted a 5.7 percent enrollment increase for 1994, compared with a 4.1 percent increase for men (Table 4). Since 1990, women have experienced an overall gain of 25 percent, slightly ahead of the 23.3 percent increase for men.

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Degrees Conferred

Students of color achieved some noteworthy gains in the number of degrees conferred during the late 1980s and early 1990s, as documented in past editions of this annual status report. Nonetheless, the increases varied considerably among the four major ethnic minority groups. This year's report provides updated information based on new data from the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES) and other sources. Data for associate, bachelor's, master's, and first-professional degrees come from NCES. Data on doctoral degrees are provided through the National Research Council's (NRC) Survey on Earned Doctorates. This section also includes a summary of graduation rate data reported by NCAA Division I colleges and universities from 1990 to 1994.

Overall, students of color achieved progress in all degree categories (associate, bachelor's, master's, and first-professional) from 1992 to 1993, led by a 13.9 percent increase at the first-professional level (Figure 10). Collectively, they recorded increases of 10.4 percent in the number of master's degrees earned, 9.3 percent in the number of bachelor's degrees earned, and 8.6 percent in the number of associate degrees earned. The rate of degree growth for students of color far exceeded that for white students in all four of these categories. The percentage increase for minorities at the bachelor's degree level was more than eight times the 1.1 percent increase registered by white students (Table 9).

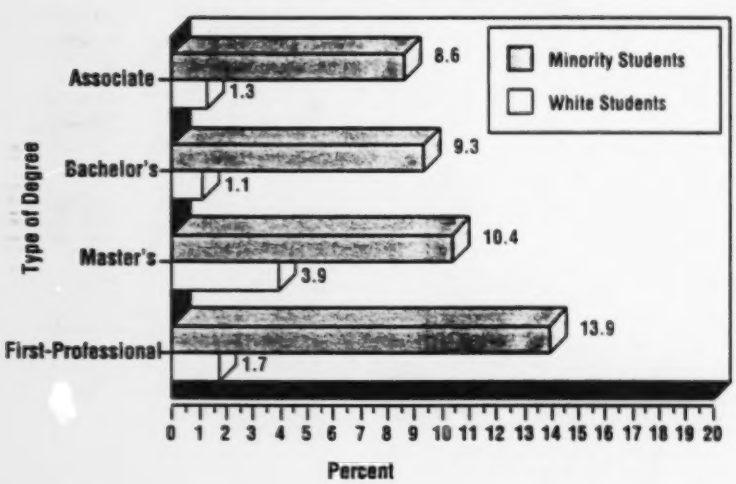
Both men and women of color experienced moderate degree gains for the 1992–93 academic year, including double-digit growth in the percentages of master's and first-professional degrees awarded.

Students of color achieved a small increase in the total share of degrees conferred in 1993 compared with the previous year. Minorities earned 15.6 percent of all bachelor's degrees in 1993, up 1 percentage point from 1992 (Table 9). However, students of color accounted for 24 percent of all undergraduate students in 1993 (Table 5). As these figures show, the representation of minorities among degree recipients remains considerably lower than their share of total undergraduate enrollments.

Similar trends also were evident at all other degree levels. Students of color earned 16.8 percent of all first-professional degrees in 1993, up from 15.4 percent the previous year (Table 11). However, minorities represented 20.5 percent of all professional students in 1993 (Table 5).

At the master's degree level, students of color earned 12.4 percent of the total number of degrees awarded in 1993, up from 11.9 percent the previous year (Table 10). Minorities accounted for 13.7 percent of total enrollments at the graduate level during 1993 (Table 5).

Figure 10
Changes in Degrees Awarded to Minority and White Students by Type of Degree, 1992 to 1993



Source: National Center for Education Statistics, U.S. Department of Education. Digest of Education Statistics, 1995. Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1995.

African Americans

■ African Americans posted solid increases in the percentages of associate, bachelor's, master's, and first-professional degrees earned in 1993, ranging from 7.4 percent at the associate level to 15.2 percent at the first-professional level (Figure 11).

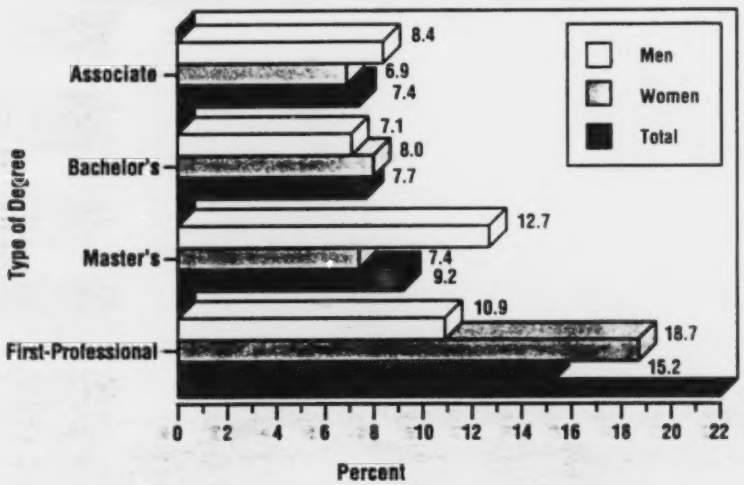
■ After a slight decline in the late 1980s, the number of African Americans earning associate degrees has increased by 20 percent since 1990. This upward trend included growth in 1993 of 7.4 percent (Table 8).

■ African American men posted larger one-year increases than African American women in the number of associate degrees and master's degrees earned in 1993. Progress for African American men included double-digit gains of 12.7 percent at the master's level and 10.9 percent at the first-professional level.

■ A 7.7 percent increase in the number of bachelor's degrees earned by African Americans in 1993 was the slowest rate of growth among the four major ethnic minority groups (Table 9). African Americans also finished behind Asian Americans, Hispanics, and American Indians in terms of growth at the master's degree level, despite a one-year increase of 9.2 percent (Table 10).

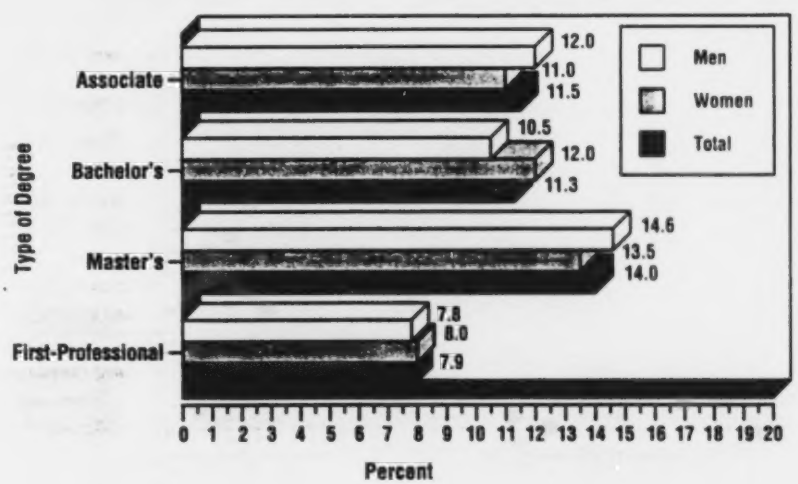
■ After declining in the late 1980s, the number of African Americans earning bachelor's degrees has increased steadily since 1990. The 27.5 percent increase in the number of bachelor's degrees earned from 1990 to 1993 is considerably higher than the undergraduate enrollment gain of 12.5 percent for African Americans during this period. Despite this growth, African Americans received only 6.7 percent of all bachelor's degrees awarded in 1993, up only slightly from 5.9 percent in 1985.

Figure 11
Changes in Degrees Awarded to African Americans by Type of Degree and Gender, 1992 to 1993



Source: National Center for Education Statistics, U.S. Department of Education. Digest of Education Statistics, 1995. Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1995.

Figure 12
Changes in Degrees Awarded to Hispanics by Type of Degree and Gender, 1992 to 1993



Source: National Center for Education Statistics, U.S. Department of Education. Digest of Education Statistics, 1995. Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1995.

■ The 15.2 percent increase for African Americans in the number of first-professional degrees earned in 1993 reversed a slight decline in the number of degrees earned at this level in 1992.

■ African Americans at historically black colleges and universities (HBCUs) showed gains in most degree categories in 1993 compared with 1992 (Table 12). Notable highlights include increases of 10.8 percent at the bachelor's level and 39.6 percent at the first-professional level. Overall, HBCUs awarded 28.4 percent of all bachelor's degrees and 15.4 percent of all first-professional degrees earned by African Americans in 1993.

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Photo credit: San Francisco State University

Hispanics

■ Hispanics achieved double-digit increases ranging from 11 percent to 14 percent in the numbers of associate, bachelor's, and master's degrees earned in 1993, posting the largest increases among the four major ethnic minority groups in each category (Figure 12).

■ A 7.9 percent increase in first-professional degrees in 1993 was the lowest among the four ethnic groups. Nonetheless, Hispanics have recorded gains of 23 percent at this level since 1990 (Table 11).

■ Hispanic men made solid progress in all degree categories, including increases of 12 percent in the number of associate degrees earned, 10.5 percent in the number of bachelor's degrees earned, and 14.6 percent in the number of master's degrees earned in 1993.

■ Hispanic women recorded similar gains of 11 percent in the number of associate degrees earned, 12 percent in the number of bachelor's degrees earned, and 13.5 percent in the number of master's degrees earned from 1992 to 1993.

■ Despite these increases, Hispanics remain underrepresented in the number of degrees conferred. They earned only 5.9 percent of associate degrees, 3.9 percent of bachelor's degrees, 2.9 percent of master's degrees, and 4 percent of first-professional degrees awarded in 1993.

■ Hispanic students attending Hispanic-serving institutions (HSIs), colleges and universities that have an enrollment that is 25 percent or more Hispanic, showed moderate to large one-year gains in most degree categories for 1993 (Table 13). The number of Hispanics earning degrees increased by 34.6 percent at the associate level, 16.6 percent at the bachelor's level, and 27 percent at the master's level in 1993.

■ Overall, HSIs awarded 43.8 percent of the associate degrees earned by Hispanics in 1993, a moderate increase from the previous year. HSIs also awarded 18.2 percent of bachelor's degrees and 13.9 percent of master's degrees earned by Hispanics in 1993. It should be noted that the number of institutions classified as HSIs increased by 17.5 percent in the 1993 degree survey compared with the 1992 survey.

Asian Americans

■ Asian Americans showed one-year growth in all degree categories for 1993, with increases ranging from a low of 6.6 percent in the number of associate degrees earned to a high of 15.8 percent in the number of first-professional degrees earned (Figure 13).

■ The number of Asian American women earning bachelor's degrees more than doubled from 1985 to 1993, while the rate for Asian American men increased by 86.6 percent during this period. Both rates are far above the growth experienced by other ethnic groups since the mid-1980s.

■ Asian American women recorded an increase of 23.6 percent at the first-professional level, more than double the gain for Asian American men. Since 1990, the number of Asian American women earning first-professional

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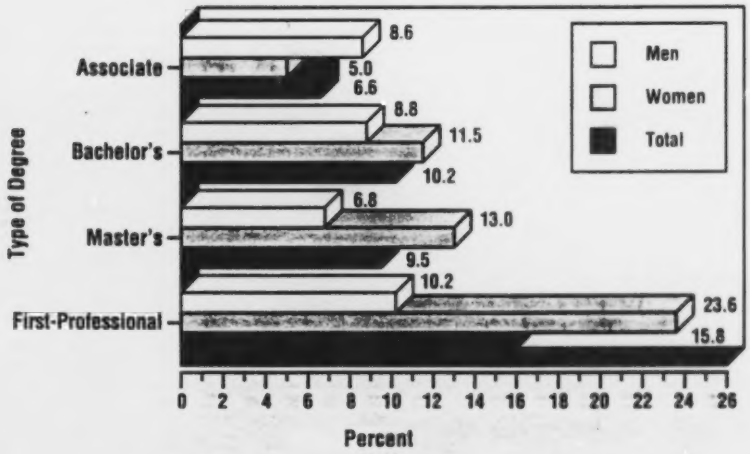
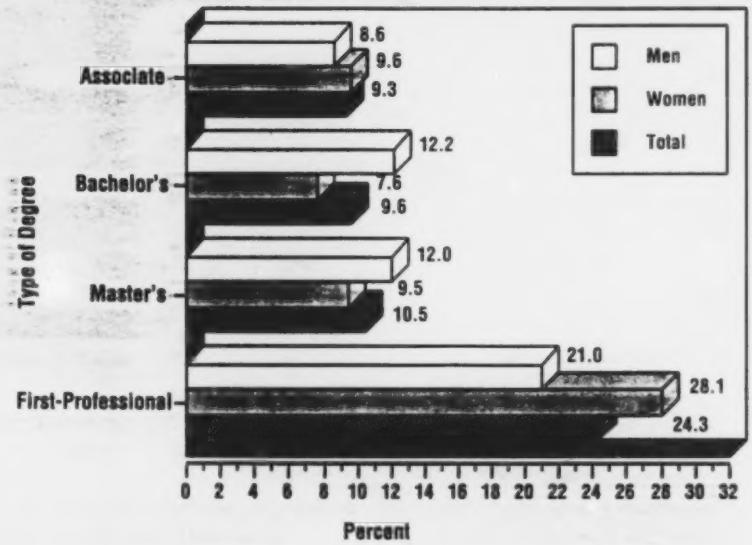
Figure 13
Changes in Degrees Awarded to Asian Americans by Type of Degree and Gender, 1992 to 1993



Source: National Center for Education Statistics, U.S. Department of Education. Digest of Education Statistics, 1995. Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1995.

Figure 14
Changes in Degrees Awarded to American Indians by Type of Degree and Gender, 1992 to 1993



Source: National Center for Education Statistics, U.S. Department of Education. Digest of Education Statistics, 1995. Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1995.

degrees is up 64.5 percent, compared with a gain of 45.6 percent for their male counterparts.

■ Asian Americans in 1993 accounted for 8.6 percent of first-professional students but earned only 6.9 percent of all first-professional degrees (Tables 5 and 11). By comparison, in 1993, Asian Americans represented 3.9 percent of all graduate students and earned 3.8 percent of master's degrees that year. Asian Americans also accounted for 5.1 percent of undergraduate students and earned 4.4 percent of bachelor's degrees and 3.3 percent of associate degrees awarded in 1993.

American Indians

■ Despite continued progress, American Indians earned only 0.4 percent of all degress awarded at the master's degree level, only 0.5 percent of all degrees awarded at the bachelor's and first-professional degree levels, and only 0.9 percent of all associate degrees in 1993.

■ American Indians registered their largest increase from 1992 to 1993 at the first-professional level, with a gain of 24.3 percent (Figure 14). The growth at this level was the largest among the four major ethnic minority groups. The smallest gain for American Indians from 1992 to 1993 was 9.3 percent at the associate degree level.

■ American Indian men recorded substantially more progress in bachelor's degrees over the most recent two-year period than they did for the ten-year period from 1981 to 1991. From 1991 to 1993, the number of American Indian men earning bachelor's degrees increased by 28.8 percent, more than twice the 11.8 percent gain achieved by American Indian men from 1981 to 1991.

■ American Indian women posted larger gains than American Indian men at the associate and first-professional degree levels in 1993, while American Indian men made larger gains in the number of bachelor's and master's degrees earned.

■ Despite the large percentage gains in the number of first-professional degrees earned, American Indians earned only 368 such degrees in 1993.

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Degrees Conferred By Field

Students of color achieved gains in the six major fields of study from 1992 to 1993, at both the bachelor's and master's degree levels. The largest increase at the bachelor's level occurred in life sciences (14.6 percent) (Table 14). The largest increase at the master's level was 15.6 percent in both business and the health professions (Table 15).

NCES data show that minorities are making progress in social sciences and education, although the gains often are small. Students of color earned 3.3 percent more education degrees and 6.8 percent more social science degrees at the bachelor's level in 1993 than in 1992. They made more progress at the master's level, with one-year increases of 7.5 percent in education and 13.8 percent in social sciences.

Minority students recorded the slowest rate of growth in engineering at both the bachelor's and master's degree levels, with increases of 4 percent and 5.7 percent, respectively.

Photo credit: University of Missouri-Kansas City

African Americans

■ The number of African Americans earning bachelor's degrees in education increased by 7 percent in 1993, with men showing a 9 percent gain compared to a 6.3 percent gain among women.

■ African American men recorded growth of 26.7 percent in the number of bachelor's degrees earned in health professions from 1992 to 1993. Nonetheless, African American women continue to earn most of the degrees awarded to African Americans in this category and they also experienced an increase of 10.2 percent for the year.

■ A 4.8 percent increase in the number of business degrees earned at the bachelor's level indicates much slower growth for African Americans in this field than was the case during the late 1980s. However, African Americans earned 12.8 percent more master's degrees in business in 1993, following a trend from the past decade.

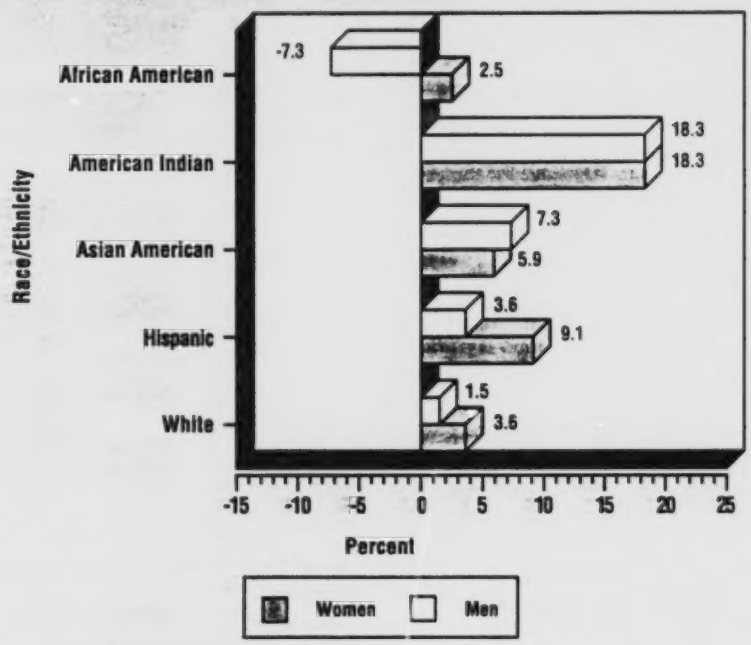
■ The number of engineering degrees awarded to African Americans also increased steadily at the master's degree level, despite slow growth at the bachelor's level in 1993. African Americans earned 16.4 percent more master's degrees in engineering during 1993, compared with an increase of only 3.3 percent at the bachelor's degree level.

■ African American women continued to earn more master's degrees in business than did African American men in 1993, a trend that appears to have begun in 1992.

Hispanics

■ After experiencing a large increase in 1992, Hispanics lost ground in the number of bachelor's degrees earned in education in 1993. A 4.6 percent decline for the year included a decrease of 8.4 percent in degrees earned by Hispanic men.

Figure 15
Changes in Doctoral Degrees by Race/Ethnicity and Gender, 1993 to 1994



Source: National Research Council, Doctorate Record File, 1993 and 1994.

■ Hispanics registered larger gains at the master's degree level than at the bachelor's degree level in 1993, with the differences most evident in social sciences and education.

■ Hispanics registered a 31.6 percent one-year gain in the number of master's degrees earned in social sciences in 1993, including an increase of 47 percent for Hispanic men. The overall increase at the master's level was seven times the 4.5 percent gain in the number of social science degrees earned at the bachelor's level the same year.

■ Hispanics had the largest increases of the four major ethnic minority groups in business and health professions at the bachelor's level and in public affairs at the master's level.

Asian Americans

■ At the bachelor's level, Asian Americans recorded their largest increases in the numbers of life sciences and education degrees earned, with one-year gains of 15.9 percent and 12.6 percent, respectively.

■ Asian Americans showed little or no progress in the number of bachelor's and master's degrees awarded in engineering in 1993. Asian American men were the main reason for this stagnation, showing only a slight increase in the number of bachelor's degrees earned and a 1 percent decrease in the number of master's degrees earned.

■ The number of Asian American men earning master's degrees in social sciences declined by 5.1 percent in 1993. However, a 20.6 percent gain by Asian American women in this category led to a net gain for Asian Americans for the year.

■ Asian American students registered their largest gains in business and health professions at the master's level, with increases of 18.4 percent and 16.9 percent, respectively.

American Indians

■ American Indians recorded gains in five of the six major degree categories at both the bachelor's and master's degree levels in 1993. Increases in social sciences led the way at both levels, with gains of 27.4 percent at the bachelor's level and 44 percent at the master's level that year.

■ By comparison, the number of education degrees earned by American Indians fell slightly (-1.5 percent) at the bachelor's level and remained largely unchanged at the master's level (0.4 percent).

■ American Indians showed only a mixed record of progress in the number of master's degrees earned in 1993. American Indian men earned fewer master's degrees in health professions and public affairs in 1993, while American Indian women showed declines in the number of degrees earned in education, social sciences, and public affairs at the master's level.

■ The number of American Indian men earning master's degrees in social sciences more than doubled in 1993, but their numbers remained small. Forty-three American Indian men earned these degrees in 1993, up from only 18 the previous year.

■ American Indians earned only 283 bachelor's degrees and 61 master's degrees in engineering during 1993. Nonetheless, both figures represent increases from the previous year.

DOCTORAL DEGREES

General Trends

Among U.S. citizens, students of color achieved an increase of 47.9 percent in the number of doctoral degrees earned from 1984 to 1994, based on information from the National Research Council (Table 16). Minorities also achieved a one-year gain of 4 percent from 1993 to 1994.

Among all doctorate recipients, women recorded larger gains than did men in the number of doctoral degrees earned.

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both from 1993 to 1994 and for the previous ten-year period. Men, however, continue to earn most of the doctoral degrees awarded nationwide, including 61.5 percent of those earned in 1994.

The progress made by women is particularly evident among U.S. citizens. The number of doctoral degrees earned by male U.S. citizens remained largely unchanged from 1984 to 1994, while the number of degrees earned by female U.S. citizens increased by 33 percent. The trend among men occurred primarily because of a slight decline in the number of degrees awarded to white men.

Among non-citizens, the number of doctoral degrees earned increased by 7.9 percent in 1994, nearly four times the rate of growth from the previous year. The number of degrees awarded to non-citizen women increased by 11.5 percent in 1994, compared to an increase of 6.8 percent for men. Since 1984, the number of doctoral degrees among non-citizen women has tripled, while the number of degrees awarded to non-citizen men has nearly doubled.

African Americans

■ African Americans experienced a slight decline at the doctoral level between 1993 and 1994 (-1.4 percent). A 7.3 percent decrease in the number of doctorates earned by African American men was the main reason for the decrease; in comparison, the number of African American women earning degrees increased by 2.5 percent for the year (Figure 15).

■ Since 1984, the number of degrees awarded to African American women has increased by 30.2 percent, while the number of degrees awarded to African American men has decreased by 4.7 percent.

Photo credit: Southern Methodist University

■ The number of doctoral degrees awarded to African Americans by historically black colleges and universities increased by 7.6 percent in 1993, the most recent year for which data are available. HBCUs awarded 128 doctoral degrees to African Americans in 1993, up from 119 the previous year (Table 12). Overall, there was a 6.8 percent increase in the number of doctorates awarded to all students at HBCUs that year.

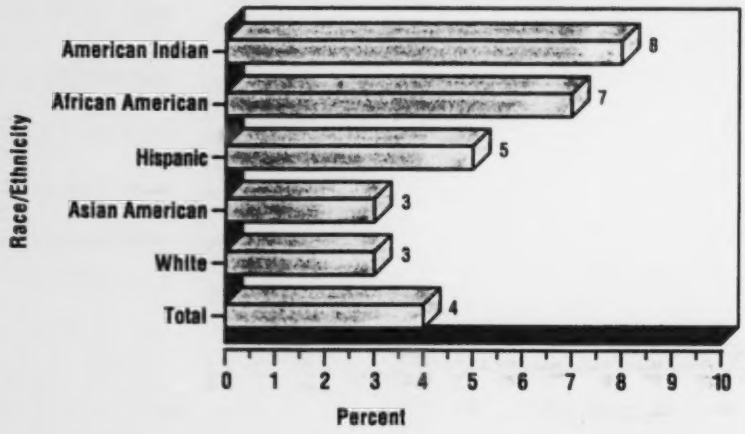
Hispanics

■ Among U.S. citizens, Hispanics recorded a 6.3 percent increase in the number of doctoral degrees earned in 1994, following a ten-year trend of moderate year-to-year gains (Table 16).

■ Hispanic women earned more doctoral degrees than Hispanic men in 1994, largely because of a 9.1 percent increase since 1993. The number of Hispanic women earning doctoral degrees has doubled during the past decade. In comparison, Hispanic men show smaller growth in the numbers of doctorates earned; they posted increases of 3.6 percent for 1994 and 39.6 percent for the past ten years.

■ The number of doctoral degrees awarded to Hispanics at Hispanic-

Figure 16
Changes in NCAA Division I Six-Year Graduation Rates, 1990 through 1994



Source: National Collegiate Athletic Association. Division I Graduation Rates Reports, 1991–92, 1992–93, 1993, 1994, and 1995.

serving institutions increased in 1993, reversing a decline from the previous year. However, these colleges and universities awarded only 13 doctorates to Hispanics in 1993 (Table 13).

Asian Americans

■ The number of Asian Americans earning doctoral degrees has increased by 48 percent since 1990, including a gain of 6.7 percent in 1994.

■ Asian American men posted a larger increase than did Asian American women in the number of doctoral degrees earned in 1994. However, ten-year trends show that Asian American women have posted greater gains in this category. Overall, the number of Asian American women earning doctorates has doubled since 1984.

American Indians

■ American Indians experienced a moderate gain in the number of doctorates earned in 1994. This increase, however, was not enough to reverse an unexpectedly large decline from 1992 to 1993.

■ Only 142 American Indians earned doctoral degrees in 1994. This figure is nearly double the number of degrees awarded in 1984, with women having made most of the progress over the past ten years.

DOCTORAL DEGREES BY FIELD

U.S. citizens recorded increases in the numbers of doctoral degrees earned in all major fields except engineering from 1993 to 1994. The largest increase was 6.7 percent in "other" professional degrees (Table 17). Other changes included a 1.7 percent increase in the number of education doctorates earned and a 1.3 percent gain in the number of social sciences doctorates earned.

African Americans

■ In 1994, African Americans experienced one-year gains in the number of doctorates earned amounting to 26.8 percent in physical science, 7.4 percent in humanities, and 7.3 percent in engineering.

■ African Americans lost ground in education, life sciences, and social sciences. The largest decline in the number of doctorates earned by African Americans amounted to 5.9 percent in education.

Hispanics

■ Between 1993 and 1994, Hispanics who were U.S. citizens registered moderate gains in most categories but lost ground in engineering and social sciences.

■ The largest gain for Hispanics Americans amounted to 22.5 percent in "other" professional degrees, followed by 15.9 percent in life sciences. The largest decline was 12.5 percent in the number of engineering doctorates earned.

Asian Americans

■ Asian American students achieved one-year increases in most doctoral fields, including a gain of 26.9 percent in social sciences and a 61.5 percent increase in "other" professional doctorates.

■ The number of Asian Americans earning doctorates declined in education, engineering, and the physical sciences in 1994, with engineering showing the greatest decrease at -7.3 percent.

American Indians

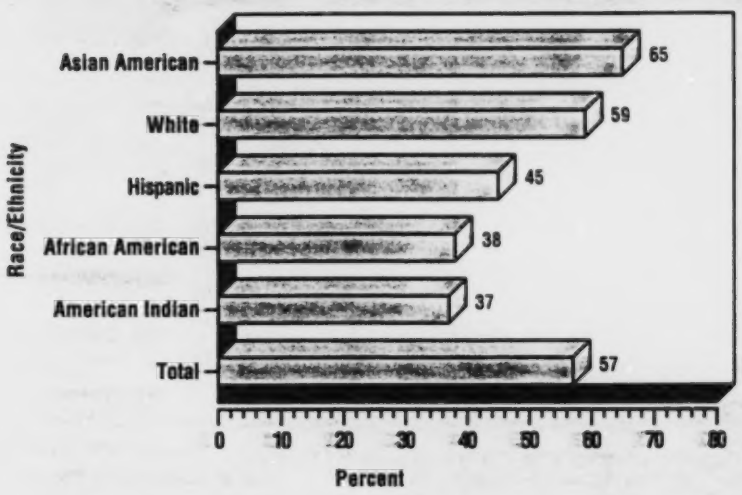
■ American Indians in 1994 showed progress in most doctoral degree categories except education, where they experienced a decline of 28 percent, and in physical sciences, where the number of doctorates awarded was unchanged from the previous year.

■ American Indians earned only seven doctoral degrees in engineering and 11 degrees in physical science in 1994.

COLLEGE GRADUATION RATES

Data gathered by Division I colleges and universities and reported to the National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) show overall progress in graduation rates among stu-

Figure 17
NCAA Division I Six-Year Graduation Rates, 1994



Source: National Collegiate Athletic Association. Division I Graduation Rates Report, 1995.

dents of color from 1990 to 1994 (Table 18). Division I institutions gathered this information as part of a nationwide effort to compile graduation rate data and to compare the graduation rates of students and student-athletes at these institutions.

Data from Division I institutions show that all four ethnic minority groups achieved progress in completing post-secondary education from 1990 to 1994. Percentage gains during this period ranged from a low of 3 percentage points for Asian Americans to a high of 8 percentage points for American Indians (Figure 16). African Americans and Hispanics also registered more progress in graduation rates than whites, who experienced an increase of 3 percentage points for the period.

Despite percentage gains, however, African Americans, American Indians, and Hispanics continue to trail whites in overall graduation rates at Division I institutions. The gap in graduation rates between African Americans and whites was more than 20 percentage points in 1994, and a similar gap was evident between whites and American Indians (Figure 17). The gap between Hispanics and whites was 14 percentage points at Division I institutions in 1994. By comparison, Asian Americans posted the highest graduation rate in 1994 among all groups.

All four ethnic minority groups had higher graduation rates at independent colleges and universities than at public institutions. Nonetheless, rates among men and women of color increased from 1990 to 1994 at both types of institutions.

African Americans

■ In 1994, the graduation rate for African Americans at Division I colleges and universities was 38 percent. This rate is up 1 percentage point from 1993 and reflects an increase of 7 percentage points since 1990 (Table 18).

■ African American women in 1994 were more likely than African American men to graduate from NCAA Division I colleges and universities. The graduation rate for African American women was 41 percent in 1994, compared with 34 percent for African American men. The graduation rate for women increased by 7 percentage points from 1990 to 1994, and the corresponding rate for African American men increased by 6 percentage points during that time period.

■ Graduation rates for African Americans exceeded 50 percent at independent colleges and universities in 1994. The graduation rate of 51 percent at independent institutions was significantly higher than the 36 percent graduation rate at public institutions.

■ Nonetheless, African Americans at public institutions have made larger percentage gains than those at independent institutions since 1990. Graduation rates for African Americans increased by 8 percentage points at public institutions from 1990 to 1994; the increase at independent colleges and universities was only 2 percentage points.

Hispanics

■ In 1994, the graduation rate for Hispanics attending Division I colleges and universities was 45 percent, a rate unchanged from the previous year. From 1990 to 1994, however, the graduation rate for Hispanics increased by 5 percentage points.

■ Hispanic women posted a higher graduation rate than Hispanic men at Division I schools in 1994. The 48 percent graduation rate for Hispanic women in 1994 reflects an increase of 6 percentage points since 1990. Hispanic men also registered a gain of 4 percentage points from 1990 to 1994, when their Division I graduation rate was 42 percent.

■ In 1994, the graduation rate for Hispanics at public institutions was 41 percent, a rate unchanged from the previous year. Since 1990, Hispanics achieved a gain of 6 percentage points in graduation rates at these institutions.

■ Independent colleges and universities reported a graduation rate of 66 percent for Hispanics in 1994. This rate was unchanged from 1993, but reflects a gain of 2 percentage points since 1990.

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Photo credit: University of Maryland at Baltimore

Asian Americans

■ The 1994 graduation rate for Asian Americans at NCAA Division I institutions was 65 percent, the highest rate of any group, including whites. The graduation rate for Asian Americans actually declined by 1 percentage point from 1993, but the 1994 rate is still above the 1990 graduation rate of 62 percent.

■ Asian American women posted a 1994 graduation rate of 67 percent, down 3 percentage points from the previous year. Nonetheless, Asian American women still are more likely to graduate than are Asian American men, who had a 1994 graduation rate of 62 percent.

■ Graduation rates for Asian Americans declined at both public and independent institutions during 1994. The graduation rate at public institutions decreased from 63 percent to 60 percent, while the rate at independent colleges and universities declined from 80 percent to 78 percent. Asian Americans still showed overall progress at both types of institutions from 1990 to 1994, however.

American Indians

■ The 37 percent graduation rate for American Indians at Division I institutions was the lowest rate among the four major ethnic minority groups in 1994. Nonetheless, this rate reflects a gain of 5 percentage points since 1992 and 8 percentage points since 1990.

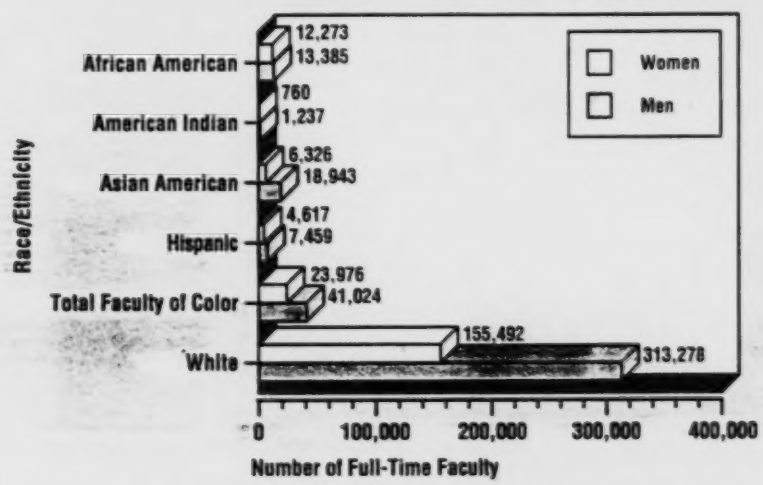
■ In 1994, the graduation rate for American Indian women was 40 percent, an increase of 9 percentage points since 1990. American Indian men posted a smaller gain of 6 percentage points, from 28 percent to 34 percent, during this period.

■ American Indians at independent institutions posted a graduation rate of 58 percent for 1994, up 10 percentage points since 1990. Graduation rates for American Indians at independent colleges and universities fluctuated greatly during this period, dropping as low as 45 percent in 1992.

■ Despite steady increases, American Indians at public colleges and universities had the lowest graduation rate among the four ethnic minority groups. The graduation rate in 1994 for American Indians at public institutions was 34 percent, up from 27 percent in 1990 and 30 percent in 1992.

Employment Trends

Figure 18
Full-Time Faculty in Higher Education by Race/Ethnicity and Gender, 1993



Source: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Fall Staff Survey, 1993.

Despite employment gains during the past two decades, faculty of color have worked primarily at historically black colleges and universities, Puerto Rican universities, and community colleges for much of the 20th century. African Americans represented less than 1 percent of faculty at predominantly white campuses during the early 1960s[2] and only 2 percent of all faculty in higher education as recently as 1979.[3] Similarly, Hispanics represented less than 1 percent of all full-time faculty in 1973 and remained at 1.5 percent at the end of the 1970s.[4]

African Americans, Hispanics, Asian Americans, and American Indians all achieved moderate numerical gains among college faculty during the 1980s, and this year's report examines trends from 1983 to 1993. It relies on the most recent data available from employment and faculty surveys of the U.S. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC), the U.S. Education Department's National Center for Education Statistics (NCES), an American Council of Education database on college chief executive officers, and other sources. Readers should be cautioned that prior to 1993, the higher education employment data were collected by EEOC. These data were not imputed for non-reporting institutions, while data for 1993 were collected by NCES and are imputed for non-reporting institutions. Also, for the first time, non-U.S. citizens are disaggregated from U.S. citizens in 1993. These changes may affect trend analysis.

GENERAL TRENDS

Full-Time Faculty

■ Higher education institutions employed more faculty of color in 1993 than in 1983 (Table 19). The number of full-time minority faculty increased by 43.7 percent during that ten-year period, compared to a 6.4 percent growth for whites and a 9.9 percent increase among all faculty. Each of the four major ethnic minority groups achieved gains of at least 30 percent during this period.

■ Despite these ten-year trends, white faculty posted a larger gain than did faculty of color from 1991 to 1993. The 1.2 percent increase for minorities was less than half of the 2.7 percent gain for whites and the 2.5 percent increase among all faculty during this period. As a result, faculty of color represented only 12.2 percent of all faculty in 1993, down slightly from 12.3 percent in 1991.

■ Male faculty of color lost ground from 1991 to 1993, with a decline of 2.3 percent. Nonetheless, men of color show a total gain in faculty employment of 34.9 percent from 1983 to 1993. Women of color showed gains of 7.8 percent from 1991 to 1993 and of 61.7 percent for the most recent ten-year period. By 1993, women of color held 23,976 full-time faculty positions, compared with the 41,024 positions held by minority men (Figure 18).

Faculty by Rank

■ Breaking with a recent trend, faculty of color achieved their largest gains at the full professor and associate professor

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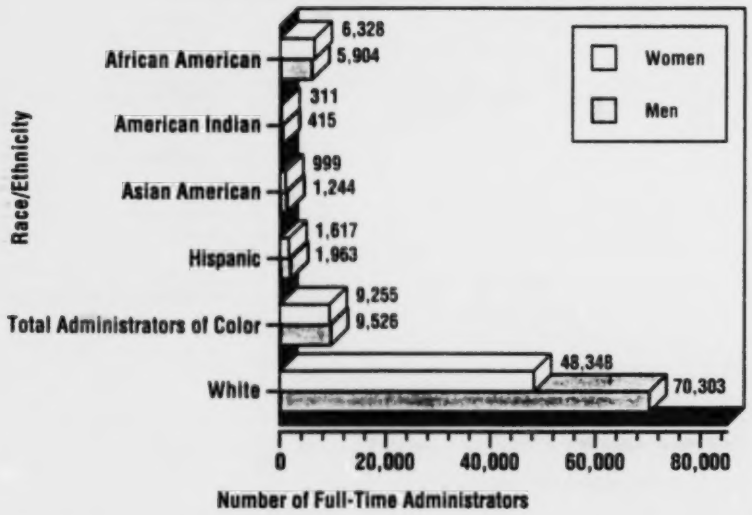
Figure 19
Full-Time Administrators in Higher Education by Race/Ethnicity and Gender, 1993



Source: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics. Fall Staff Survey, 1993.

levels from 1991 to 1993 (Table 20). In comparison, fewer faculty of color were employed at the assistant professor and instructor/lecturer levels in 1993 than had been in 1991. This trend may mean that sizable numbers of minority faculty who were assistant and associate professors are receiving promotions to associate and full professorships. In addition, colleges may be hiring fewer faculty of color at the assistant professor and instructor levels.

■ A 60.2 percent increase for faculty of color at the full professor level from 1983 to 1993 translated into a proportional gain, as well. Overall, faculty of color accounted for 9.2 percent of all full professors in 1993, up from 7 percent in 1983 and 8.5 percent in 1991.

■ Faculty of color accounted for 11.2 percent of all associate professors in 1993, thanks to a 38.7 percent increase from 1983 to 1993. Minorities achieved moderate progress at this level both from 1991 to 1993 and for the entire ten-year period cited in this report.

■ Faculty of color show ten-year gains at the assistant professor, instructor and lecturer, and "other faculty" levels. However, minorities lost ground in all three of these categories from 1991 to 1993.

Tenure

■ Overall, faculty tenure rates increased by 1 percentage point from 1991 to 1993. In comparison, the tenure rate for faculty of color increased by 3 percentage points during this period (Table 21). Nonetheless, faculty of color continue to hold tenure at lower rates than those for white faculty.

■ Ten-year trends show a slight decline in tenure rates for faculty of color, from 63 percent to 62 percent. Tenure rates for whites increased by 1 percentage point during this period, to 73 percent.

■ African Americans and Hispanics of both genders show no progress in tenure rates during this decade. Of the four major ethnic minority groups, only Asian American men and American Indian men achieved increases in tenure rates in 1993 compared to 1983.

■ The gap in tenure rates between men of color and women of color increased from 1991 to 1993 as men achieved more progress. Among men of color, 66 percent held tenure in 1993, compared to only 56 percent of women of color.

White males also were more likely than white females to gain tenure. The gender gap among American Indians was 23 percentage points, the largest difference among all groups.

Administration and Management

■ The number of administrators in higher education increased by 17 percent from 1983 to 1993, but most of this progress occurred during the mid- to late 1980s. The number of college and university administrators actually declined from 1989 to 1991[5] and then remained largely unchanged from 1991 to 1993 (Table 22). The trends occurred primarily because the number of male administrators changed little from 1983 to 1993.

■ Female administrators increased their presence on college and university campuses from 1983 to 1993, with a total increase for the decade of 51 percent. The gain for male administrators during this period was less than 1 percent. From 1991 to 1993, the number of female administrators increased by 4.8 percent, while the number of male administrators declined by 2.6 percent.

■ The number of administrators of color increased by 4.3 percent from 1991 to 1993 and by 55.7 percent during the decade from 1983 to 1993. Persons of color represented 13.7 percent of all administrators in higher education in 1993, up from 13.2 percent in 1991 and 10.3 percent in 1983.

■ Women of color accounted for most of the gains among minorities. The number of female administrators of color nearly doubled from 1983 to 1993, while the number of males increased by 32 percent. Despite this gain by minority women, men of color held slightly more administrative positions in 1993 (9,526 compared to 9,255 held by

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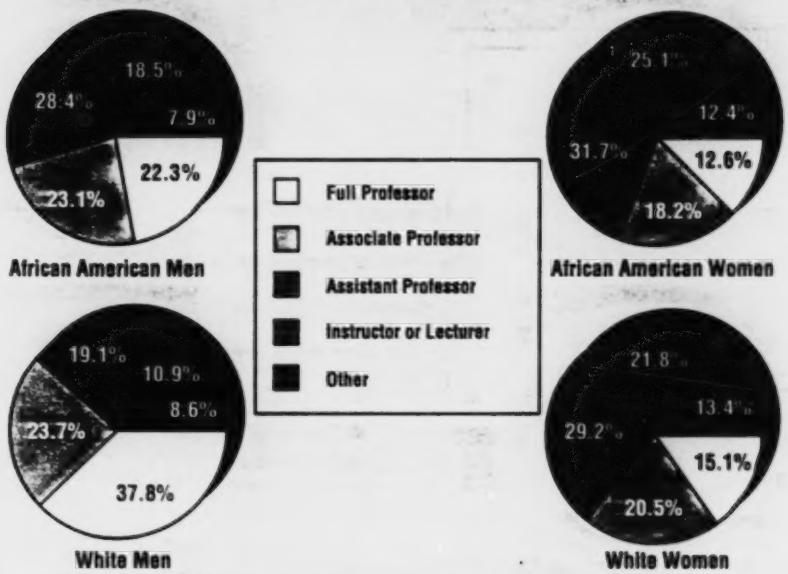
Figure 20
Distribution of African American and White Full-Time Faculty by Rank and Gender, 1993



Source: U.S. Department of Education, Center for Education Statistics. Fall Faculty Survey, 1993.

minority women) (Figure 19). After declining from 1989 to 1991, the number of male administrators of color increased during the following two years by 2.8 percent. Nonetheless, women of color made greater progress of 5.9 percent from 1991 to 1993.

■ In 1995, African Americans, Hispanics, Asian Americans, and American Indians accounted for 11.5 percent of all chief executive officers (CEOs) at regionally accredited colleges and universities in the United States. This rate is up from 8.1 percent in 1986 and 9.2 percent in 1990.[6] Nonetheless, most African American CEOs are at historically black colleges and universities, and American Indian leaders are most likely to head tribal colleges. Only 20 Asian Americans are chief executive officers at regionally accredited colleges and universities in the United States (Table 23).

AFRICAN AMERICANS

Full-Time Faculty

■ The number of full-time African American faculty increased by 31.1 percent from 1983 to 1993 (Table 19). Nonetheless, African Americans made the least progress compared to other ethnic minority groups during that period.

■ African Americans achieved a 4.3 percent increase in the number of full-time faculty positions held from 1991 to 1993, a rate that trailed the increases for Hispanics and American Indians but that placed ahead of that for Asian Americans during this period.

■ African Americans represented 4.8 percent of all full-time faculty in 1993, up from 4 percent in 1983 and 4.7 percent in 1991. African American men accounted for 3.8 percent of all male full-time faculty in 1993, compared with 3 percent in 1983. African American women represented 6.8 percent of all female full-time faculty in 1993, down slightly from 7 percent a decade earlier.

■ African American men and women achieved moderate gains of 27 percent and 35.9 percent, respectively, in the numbers of full-time faculty appointments held during the ten-year period ending in 1993. However, African American women posted a 6.7 percent increase from 1991 to 1993, approximately three times the gain made by African American men.

■ The moderate gain in the numbers of faculty positions held by African American women from 1991 to 1993 did not translate into a proportional increase. Women of all races achieved an 8.6 percent increase in the number of faculty positions held during these two years; as a result, African American women lost ground compared to all women faculty for this period.

Faculty by Rank

■ African Americans achieved a 58.4 percent increase in the number of full professorships held from 1983 to 1993 (Table 20). This increase was greater than those for Asian Americans and American Indians during this period. Much of this progress occurred between 1991 and 1993, when African Americans recorded a 26.7 percent increase in the number of positions held at the full professor level, the largest increase among the four major ethnic minority groups.

■ African American women showed a gain of 39.6 percent at the full professor level from 1991 to 1993, while African American men registered an increase of 20.9 percent.

■ African Americans achieved moderate gains at the associate professor and assistant professor levels, both from 1991 to 1993 and over the past decade. However, African Americans lost ground at the instructor and lecturer level, largely because of a 6.9 percent decline from 1991 to 1993.

■ Despite ten-year gains, African Americans represented only 2.9 percent of full professors and 4.5 percent of associate professors in 1993. These rates were up from 2.2 percent and 3.5 percent, respectively, in 1983.

■ The number of African Americans serving as "other faculty" more than doubled from 1983 to 1993. However,

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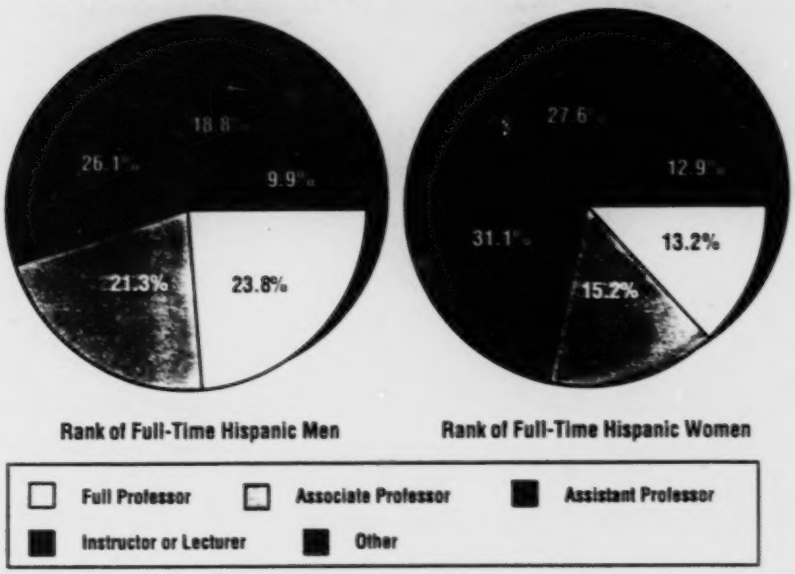
Figure 21
Distribution of Hispanic Full-Time Faculty by Rank and Gender, 1993



Source: *U.S. Department of Education, Center for Education Statistics. Fall Faculty Survey, 1993.*

most of this increase occurred prior to 1991; the increase from 1991 to 1993 was only 2.1 percent.

■ A smaller share of African American women serve as full and associate professors than do their male counterparts (Figure 20). Nearly 70 percent of all black female faculty were employed as assistant professors, instructors or lecturers, or "other faculty."

Tenure

■ Tenure rates for African Americans increased by 3 percentage points from 1991 to 1993, but this progress was not enough to overcome an overall decline in tenure rates from 1983 to 1993 (Table 21). Sixty-one percent of African Americans had tenure in 1993, compared with 62 percent a decade earlier.

■ Both African American men and African American women achieved progress in tenure rates from 1991 to 1993. Nonetheless, African American women still are less likely than African American men to have tenure. In 1993, the gender gap was 5 percentage points, up from 4 percentage points in 1991.

Administration and Management

■ In 1993, African Americans represented 8.9 percent of all college and university administrators (Table 22). Their share of administrative positions is up from 7.1 percent in 1983 and 8.7 percent in 1991.

■ African American men experienced a larger gain than did African American women from 1991 to 1993 in the percentage of administrative positions held. Nonetheless, more African American women serve as college and university administrators. African American women account for 11 percent of all female college administrators, while African American men account for 7.4 percent of all male administrators.

■ African Americans registered a 2.9 percent total gain in the number of administrative positions held from 1991 to 1993, the smallest increase among the four major ethnic minority groups. African Americans also showed the smallest increase among the four groups for the past decade.

■ African Americans represented 6.5 percent of all college and university CEOs in 1996, up 1 percentage point from 1990. According to 1996 data from the American Council on Education's database, 192 African Americans served as CEOs at regionally accredited institutions, many of them at historically black colleges and universities (Table 23). Among African American CEOs, 77 percent were male and 23 percent were female. Most African American CEOs served at four-year institutions.

HISPANICS

Full-Time Faculty

■ Hispanics experienced a 6.2 percent increase in the number of full-time faculty positions held from 1983 to 1993, with women showing gains twice as large as men (Table 19). Overall, Hispanics represented 2.3 percent of all full-time faculty in 1993, up from 1.5 percent a decade earlier.

■ The number of Hispanic full-time faculty increased by 5.7 percent from 1991 to 1993. Women accounted for much of this increase with a total increase of 13.2 percent in the number of full-time faculty positions held. In comparison, the number of Hispanic male full-time faculty increased by only 1.5 percent during this period.

■ The number of Hispanic female full-time faculty more than doubled from 1983 to 1993. As a result, Hispanic women represented 2.6 percent of all female faculty in 1993, up from 1.7 percent a decade earlier. In comparison, the number of Hispanic male full-time faculty increased by 42.3 percent during this decade. Hispanic men represented 2.1 percent of all male full-time faculty in 1993, up from 1.5 percent in 1983.

Faculty by Rank

■ The number of Hispanics serving as full professors increased by 74.4 percent from 1983 to 1993, including a gain of

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Photo credit: Community College of Rhode Island

17.1 percent from 1991 to 1993 (Table 20). This ten-year increase was the greatest at the full professor level among the four major ethnic minority groups.

■ Hispanic women accounted for much of these increases at the full professor level. The number of Hispanic women serving as full professors more than doubled from 1983 to 1993 and included a 59.1 percent gain from 1991 to 1993. This progress far surpassed the 7.4 percent increase in the number of Hispanic men serving as full professors during this period. Nonetheless, only 611 Hispanic women served as full professors in 1993, compared to 1,776 Hispanic men. Only 13.2 percent of all Hispanic female full-time faculty were full professors, compared with 23.8 percent of all Hispanic male full-time faculty (Figure 21).

■ Hispanics experienced gains of 68.7 percent at the assistant professor level from 1983 to 1993, the largest increase at this level among the four ethnic groups. Most of this increase occurred prior to 1991.

■ Hispanics achieved their largest increase at the "other faculty" level from 1983 to 1993, more than tripling their numbers in this category.

■ Despite ten-year gains in all categories, Hispanics represented only 1.5 percent of full professors, 1.9 percent of associate professors, and 2.7 percent of assistant professors in 1993.

Tenure

■ Hispanics experienced a gain of 2 percentage points in tenure rates from 1991 to 1993, with both men and women contributing to the increase (Table 21). Nonetheless, the rate of tenure among Hispanic faculty showed a decline from 67 percent in 1983 to 63 percent in 1993.

■ The gender gap for tenure rates between Hispanic men and Hispanic women is 9 percentage points, with men being more likely to have tenure. This gap has increased over the past decade.

Administration and Management

■ The number of Hispanic administrators increased by 75.5 percent over the past decade, including an increase of 3.7 percent from 1991 to 1993 (Table 22). However, Hispanics overall represented only 2.6 percent of all administrators in 1993, up from 1.7 percent in 1983 and 2.5 percent in 1991.

■ Women accounted for most of the increase over the past decade and for all of the growth since 1991. The number of Hispanic female administrators increased by 10.7 percent from 1991 to 1993, while the number of Hispanic male administrators decreased by 1.5 percent.

■ The number of Hispanic female administrators has more than doubled over the past ten years. Despite this trend, Hispanic male administrators still outnumber Hispanic female administrators nationwide.

■ Hispanics represent 3.4 percent of CEOs at regionally accredited institutions (including Puerto Rican colleges and universities) in 1996, compared with 2.6 percent in 1990 (Table 23). By comparison, they represent 2.4 percent of CEOs heading regionally accredited institutions on the mainland. Of all Hispanic CEOs, 69 percent are male, and fewer than half lead four-year institutions.

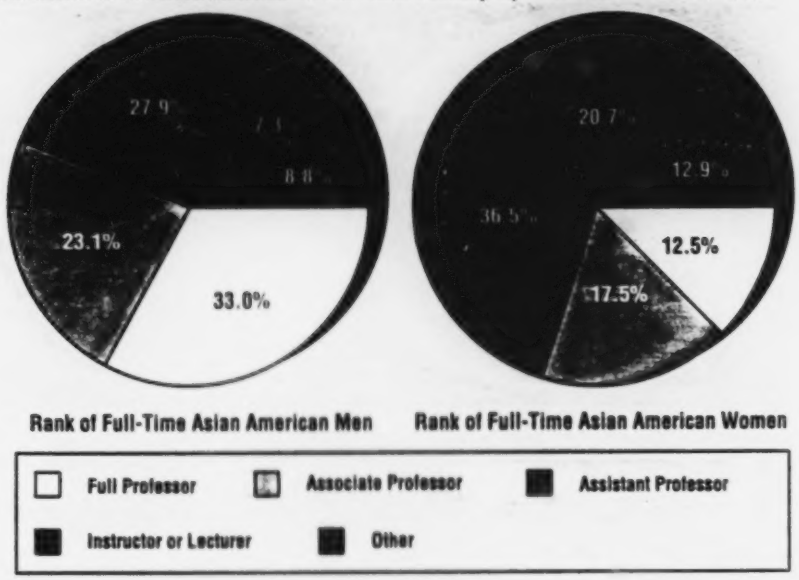
ASIAN AMERICANS

Full-Time Faculty

■ Asian Americans achieved increases of 49.5 percent in the number of full-time faculty positions held from 1983 to 1993 (Table 19). The number of female full-time faculty doubled during this period, while the number of male full-time faculty increased by 38.5 percent.

■ All of the ten-year progress for Asian Americans occurred prior to 1991. Asian Americans experienced a 4.8 percent decrease in the number of full-time faculty positions held from 1991 to 1993, the only decrease among the four major ethnic groups during this period.

Figure 22
Distribution of Asian American Full-Time Faculty by Rank and Gender, 1993



Source: U.S. Department of Education, Center for Education Statistics. Fall Faculty Survey, 1993.

However, changes in the 1993 survey methodology regarding the treatment of non-U.S. residents may account for some of this decline.

■ Asian American men were responsible for the decrease from 1991 to 1993. The number of Asian American male full-time faculty declined by 7.7 percent during this two-year period, overshadowing a 5 percent increase in the number of Asian American female full-time faculty.

■ Despite the decline, Asian American men represented nearly three-fourths of all Asian full-time faculty in 1993. Among the four major ethnic groups, Asian Americans had the largest gender gap in full-time faculty positions held.

Faculty by Rank

■ The number of Asian American full professors increased by 57.5 percent from 1983 to 1993, including a gain of 10.4 percent from 1991 to 1993 (Table 20).

■ Women accounted for much of this progress as they doubled their representation during the ten-year period. Nonetheless, only 12.5 percent of all Asian American women faculty were full professors in 1993 (Figure 22).

■ Asian Americans experienced moderate gains at the assistant professor and instructor/lecturer levels from 1983 to 1993, but most of this progress occurred prior to 1991. From 1991 to 1993, Asian Americans lost ground in both of these categories, primarily because of decreases in the numbers of Asian American men holding such positions.

■ The number of Asian Americans at the "other faculty" level decreased by 24.7 percent from 1991 to 1993. Both men and women contributed to this trend, with decreases of 28.3 percent and 15.8 percent, respectively. Changes in survey methodology may have contributed to this decline.

Tenure

■ In 1983, Asian Americans had the lowest overall tenure rates among the four major ethnic groups. By 1993, Asian Americans had the highest tenure rate—64 percent—including a gain of 6 percentage points from 1991 to 1993 (Table 21). Again, however, changes in the 1993 survey may be a factor in this trend.

■ Only 52 percent of Asian American women had tenure in 1993, a rate 15 percentage points below that for Asian American men. Despite an increase from 1991 to 1993, Asian American women still are less likely to have tenure than are African American and Hispanic women.

Administration and Management

■ The number of Asian American administrators increased by 3.7 percent from 1991 to 1993, but this progress did not translate into a proportional gain (Table 22). Asian Americans represented only 1.6 percent of all college administrators in 1993, the same percent as in 1991.

■ Asian American women registered a 12.5 percent increase in the number of administrative positions held from 1991 to 1993, while the number of Asian American men holding such positions decreased by 2.4 percent. The number of Asian American female administrators has more than doubled since 1983, compared with an increase of 57.5 percent in the number of Asian American male administrators.

■ Only 20 Asian Americans serve as CEOs of regionally accredited colleges and universities in 1996, representing less than 1 percent of all college chief executive officers. Nearly all are male, and most head four-year colleges or universities.

AMERICAN INDIANS

Full-Time Faculty

■ Fewer than one in 200 full-time faculty members was an American Indian in 1993, a figure that has remained unchanged since the 1980s.

■ American Indians have made some numerical gains during the past decade. The number of American Indian full-time faculty increased by 52.7 percent from 1983 to 1993, with women accounting for much of the gains (Table

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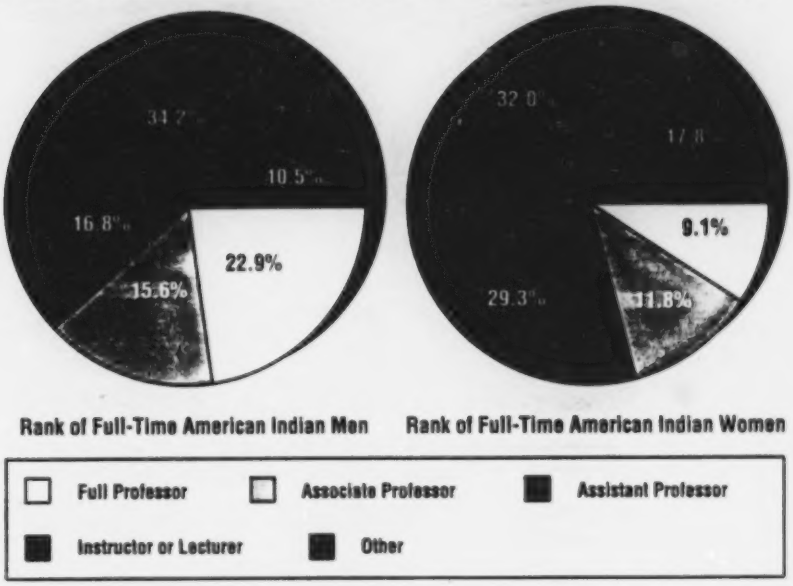
Figure 23
Distribution of American Indian Full-Time Faculty by Rank and Gender, 1993



Source: U.S. Department of Education, Center for Education Statistics, Fall Faculty Survey, 1993.

19). The number of American Indian female faculty more than doubled during the period, compared with an increase of 30.2 percent in the number of American Indian male faculty.

■ American Indians achieved some of their most impressive gains from 1991 to 1993. A gain of 20.7 percent in the number of full-time faculty positions held in this period was the largest increase among the four major ethnic minority groups. Both American Indian men and women contributed to this increase.

■ The 21.8 percent increase in the number of American Indian men holding full-time faculty positions from 1991 to 1993 was by far the largest gain among men of color for this period.

Faculty by Rank

■ Only one of every 500 full professors was an American Indian in 1993, a rate unchanged from a decade before. Only 352 American Indians served as full professors in higher education in 1993 (Table 20).

■ American Indians did achieve moderate numerical gains from 1983 to 1993, including gains of 52.4 percent at the full professor level and 45.1 percent at the assistant professor level. From 1991 to 1993, American Indians achieved gains of 19.3 percent and 17.1 percent in these categories, respectively.

■ American Indians showed no progress at the associate professor level from 1983 to 1993, despite a 3.7 percent increase in the number of such positions held from 1991 to 1993.

■ The number of American Indian women serving as full professors nearly doubled from 1983 to 1993, but their numbers remained small. Overall, only 69 American Indian women worked as full professors in higher education in 1993, and only 9.1 percent of all American Indian female faculty hold this rank (Figure 23).

■ American Indians experienced their largest gains at the "other faculty" and instructor/lecturer categories from 1983 to 1993. Much of this progress occurred between 1991 and 1993, when the number of American Indians holding "other faculty" positions increased by 30.5 percent and the number of American Indian instructor/lecturers increased by 29.3 percent.

Tenure

■ The tenure rate for American Indian faculty increased slightly from 1991 to 1993, although long-term trends still show a decline over the past decade (Table 21).

■ The 49 percent tenure rate for American Indian women was the lowest of any group in 1993. This rate also was 25 percentage points lower than that for American Indian men for the same year.

Administration and Management

■ Only one of every 200 college administrators was an American Indian in 1993, according to EEOC data. Nonetheless, American Indians reported the largest growth among all four major ethnic groups—44.3 percent—in the number of administrative positions held from 1991 to 1993 (Table 22).

■ The number of female American Indian administrators more than doubled from 1983 to 1993, while the number of male American Indian administrators increased by 33.4 percent during this period.

■ Twenty-eight American Indians serve as CEOs of regionally accredited institutions in 1996, including nine females (Table 23). American Indian CEOs work primarily at two-year tribal colleges. Only eight American Indians lead four-year colleges or universities.

SPECIAL FOCUS: AFFIRMATIVE ACTION AND HIGHER EDUCATION

Reginald Wilson, Senior Scholar
American Council on Education

"Based on the evidence, the job is not done.... We should reaffirm the principle of affirmative action and fix the practices. We should have a simple slogan: Amend it, but don't end it."

President Bill Clinton
July 19, 1995

INTRODUCTION

The current controversy over affirmative action, resulting from actions by the Board of Regents of the University of California and recent Supreme Court decisions, prompted this special focus. This section reviews briefly, and as objectively as possible, the history of affirmative action—especially as it affects higher education; its legal and political status; the particular consequences of the California events; affirmative action's positive effects in higher education; and present circumstances. It also includes some recommendations for the future.

It should be noted that the American Council on Education (ACE) is not neutral in this discussion. At its meeting of May 25, 1995, ACE's Board of Directors voted unanimously to reaffirm its support of affirmative action. The board is composed primarily of college and university presidents and the heads of leading national associations of higher education, all of whom are affected directly by the consequences of what happens to affirmative action. Thus, this exposition, while objective and factual, presents a strong argument in support of affirmative action.

HISTORY

Affirmative action has had a long and contentious history dating back many years in the United States. The practice of affirmative action began haphazardly, without a clear sense of its final scope or full intent, and evolved into the present complex system of laws and executive orders. However, the purpose always was clear: to overcome America's past history of slavery, peonage, racism, and legally sanctioned segregation, which barred blacks and other minorities and women of all races from full participation in the work force and in America's educational institutions.

Segregation, as practiced in the United States until the 1950s, was systemic and nearly complete. The exclusion it produced contradicted the lofty statements of the Constitution and the Declaration of Independence and was a blot on the conscience of Americans. These barriers have been deeply embedded in the attitudes and institutional structures of American society since the founding of the nation. Although many attempts have been made to eradicate them, such attempts have been met with fierce resistance. What follows is the history of such attempts. It is important to begin this history with African Americans, because from the time of the nation's founding, their status as slaves was legally sanctioned by the Constitution and was codified into the laws of the United States.

The Freedman's Bureau and jobs for freed slaves were established in 1865 immediately after emancipation. However, these initiatives were reduced considerably by 1875, following great resistance by white southerners and the agreed upon removal from the South of federal troops that were protecting the freed slaves. This resistance, plus many cumulative regional restrictions, finally was supported by the Supreme Court decision in *Plessy v. Ferguson* (1896), which legally sanctioned segregation of the races.

Plessy was followed immediately by the passage of Jim Crow laws in the South. These laws prevented blacks from voting and restricted other areas of black life. By 1900, blacks were strictly segregated in every facet of life, from public transportation to schools, and they would remain so for more than half a century. The strictures applied to African Americans were pervasive and confining and were sanctioned by law in the South and custom in the North, thus providing the initial impetus for the civil rights movement and the struggle for affirmative action.

Significant restrictions and discrimination also were imposed on other ethnic groups and on white women. American Indians were the most oppressed. As the original occupants of this land, they were displaced by the colonists. Over the course of American history, tribes were ravaged by disease, defeated in battle, and subjected to constant violations of the treaties into which they were forced. Many American Indians were restricted to reservations, sent to

Photo credit: San Francisco State University

boarding schools where they were beaten if they spoke their native languages, and denied educational and occupational opportunities. And, although American Indians and Alaska Natives are benefiting from the current self-determination movement among the many native confederacies, nations, tribes, pueblos, and villages, they continue to suffer tremendous social, economic, and educational inequities.[7]

Asian men first were imported into the United States to work on the railroads in the West. Asian women followed and were employed in menial positions. Later, Asians were denounced for "taking white men's jobs," and the fear of the "Yellow Peril" led to restrictions on Asian immigration in the Exclusion Act of 1924, which was not lifted until 1945. In addition, Japanese Americans were illegally confined to detention camps during World War II as a "national security measure" and lost much of their property while they were incarcerated. Recent efforts have been made to compensate Japanese Americans for these losses, but at that time, the Supreme Court upheld their relocation.

In much of the United States, Hispanic women and men, particularly those of Mexican ancestry, for long periods were restricted primarily to jobs as manual laborers and were provided few educational opportunities. For Mexican Americans, southwestern schooling reflected the social and economic realities of the region. "In many districts there were segregated Mexican schools prior to 1950. In some rural districts, no schooling was provided for Mexican Americans at all. ...Very few, if any, districts had special English programs to instruct the students. They were supposed to learn English by osmosis, by rubbing with native English speakers."[8] When large numbers of Puerto Ricans migrated to northeastern cities during World War I to fill industrial slots that were left vacant by the cut-off of European immigrant labor, they faced similar experiences. Most white educators in these cities generally assumed that Puerto Rican children were destined for low-level jobs and geared their school policies accordingly. Counselors frequently guided Puerto Rican students to vocational tracks and discouraged them from pursuing college careers. Consequently, their educational attainment rate was low and their school dropout rate was high.[9]

Black, Hispanic, and American Indian schools not only suffered from restrictions on their scholastic offerings, but also were underfunded. For example, in 1943, one white school in Mississippi had laboratory equipment valued at $2,500, while the school for blacks had no equipment; white male teachers were paid $2,508 per year, while black teachers were paid $1,850 per year (even though more than 50 percent of the black teachers had higher degrees than the whites).[10] In 1950, black schools in Mississippi received $32.55 in education funding per pupil, whereas white schools received $122.95.[11]

White women were not restricted because of their race, but they were denied many higher education and employment opportunities because of gender-based discrimination. Women of all races did not win the right to vote until 1920. Even though both black and white women had some opportunities at single-sex institutions, "coeducational schools made plain both directly and indirectly what could be denied at women's colleges, that society attached greater importance to men's achievements. Academic study became another way to reinforce the differences between men's and women's lives; no woman could forget that she was in a man's world."[12]

In 1941, a survey of predominantly white colleges and universities conducted by the Julius Rosenwald Fund found only two tenured black faculty members—both in non-teaching, laboratory positions—in all of these institutions. The following year, Dr. Allison Davis, the eminent black sociologist, was appointed to a full-time faculty position at the University of Chicago at the urging of, and with his salary partially subsidized by, the Rosenwald Fund.[13] Likewise, before World War II, "Hispanics were nearly invisible in academia."[14] Prior to 1945, Hispanics essentially were enrolled only at a few Catholic colleges and at Puerto Rican institutions.[15]

Many of the key civil rights court cases of the 1940s and early 1950s focused on schools, because they were the most obviously segregated institutions. "The schools were supported by both black and white taxes; yet the schools for blacks were clearly inferior. Rather than start with public schools, the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People's (NAACP) legal arm initiated its first cases against colleges. It proved that blacks who could not get certain degrees in black colleges were forced to leave their home state for education. Black students were prohibited from attending the segregated white colleges in the South."[16]

Having established enough precedents with successful college cases, the NAACP attacked the last educational barrier: the segregated public schools. It won its victory on May 17, 1954, in probably the most famous education case to be decided by the Supreme Court in this century: *Brown v. Board of Education*.

Prior to the *Brown* decision, efforts to desegregate American society were made on many fronts. In 1940, black leaders, including A. Philip Randolph, a prominent labor leader, met with President Franklin D. Roosevelt to protest discrimination in the burgeoning defense industry that was gearing up at the time. Randolph warned the president that if blacks continued to be refused jobs in these plants, he would organize a protest march on Washington involving thousands of blacks. The threat convinced Roosevelt to issue Executive Order 8802, which barred discrimination on the basis of race or national origin in industries with government contracts. This led, in turn, to the massive migration of millions of blacks from the South, many of whom sought jobs in the defense industries, which were located mainly in the North.

Following the war, the Servicemen's Readjustment Act of 1944 (popularly called the "G.I. Bill of Rights") granted every veteran a free college education or job training as well as a loan to purchase a home. More than 1 million African Americans had served in the armed forces in World War II, and thousands of them eagerly went to college—most of them to historically black institutions in the South, but many to predominantly white universities in the North, which welcomed all veterans with their government vouchers. Many colleges waived or lowered entrance requirements, gave extra points on entrance examinations, and provided extra help for veterans who had been out of school for three to five years. And the veterans prospered. "There has not been a college class that accomplished as much academically before or since."[17] Subsequently, in 1946, President Truman desegregated the armed forces.

These two measures in the 1940s—Executive Order 8802 and the G.I. Bill—provided the first significant opening of employment and education for blacks since Reconstruction. The momentous event of the 1950s was the *Brown* decision, which began the desegregation of American life. Although narrowed in scope by subsequent court decisions, particularly *Bradley v. Milliken* (1974), white flight from the cities, and the consequent increased segregation of blacks and Hispanics in central city schools, the *Brown* decision remains a landmark in American jurisprudence. It was from this threshold that the momentum was generated that led to the civil rights movement and eventually to affirmative action.

The term "affirmative action" came into being with President John F. Kennedy's issuance of Executive Order 10925 in 1961, but it did not have more than symbolic effect until President Lyndon B. Johnson's more definitive Executive Order 11246 in 1965, which remains operative today.

Executive Order 11246 states that any institution, public or private, employing 50 or more persons or having $50,000 in government contracts is required to file an affirmative action plan and is required to take affirmative action to seek out and employ qualified and underrepresented minorities (women were added in 1967 with Executive Order 11375) in its work force.

The above measures were augmented by the more comprehensive Civil Rights Act of 1964, which, in its Title VII, forbade all forms of discrimination in public and private sector hiring (though higher education faculty were exempted until 1972).

The affirmative action mandate was broadened with the passage of the Architectural Barriers Act in 1968, which required that buildings be modified to be accessible to people with disabilities; Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972, which prohibited sex discrimination in any federally assisted education program; and Section 504 of the Education Amendments of 1973, which required nondiscrimination in employment of people with disabilities. Subsequently, age discrimination was added to hiring prohibitions with the passage of the Age Discrimination Act of 1975.

Under President Richard M. Nixon, the Department of Labor in 1972 issued Revised Order No. 4, which detailed specific goals and timetables that effective plans were expected to have. The Office of Federal Contract Compliance Programs was established to monitor compliance with these dictates. Compliance in hiring is monitored by the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission.

Affirmative action in student admissions is shaped by the 1978 *Regents of the University of California v. Bakke* decision, in which the Supreme Court held constitutional the objective of fostering student body diversity, where race is used as a "plus factor" in admissions. The court cited academic freedom as a justification, while rejecting three other justifications: reducing the traditional deficit of minorities in medical schools and medical professions, remedying societal discrimination, and increasing the number of physicians practicing in underserved areas. The court held unconstitutional the use of specific quotas for minority students.[18]

In their 30 years of existence, the foregoing measures have been subjected to fierce court challenges and modifications by judicial decisions and by acts of Congress (to be discussed in a later section). Moreover, the Congress and the Supreme Court have gone from a liberal majority to a conservative one very much opposed to affirmative action in its present form and open to restricting its applications.

[T]here is now little dispute over the power of courts to order remedial affirmative action plans, or the right of parties to settle their case with consent decrees incorporating such plans.

Deval L. Patrick
Assistant Attorney General
for Civil Rights
Testimony to Congress
March 24, 1995

However, one thread does run clearly through all these decisions—the one articulated by Assistant Attorney General Deval Patrick. The Supreme Court has held consistently that the principle of affirmative action could be upheld if the plan to implement it was narrowly tailored, met "strict scrutiny" standards, was intended to remedy a specific wrong, and (presumably) was intended as a temporary measure.[19]

THE CONTINUING NEED

Although it has existed formally for 30 years, affirmative action has had a checkered history. Its greatest impact was in its early years, from 1965 to 1975. It languished between 1975 and 1980 and came under increasing attack between 1980 and 1992. Despite the Clinton administration's support for affirmative action, the attack has been sustained since 1992.

A wide variety of statistics mirror this history, with a positive surge in the early years, a marked dropping off during the middle years, and an attempt to hold on to gains made during the last few years. As the following evidence demonstrates, continuing disparities in employment, income, and education continue.

Continued Discrimination in Hiring

Discriminatory employment practices remain pervasive. In 1990, an Urban Institute study utilizing pairs of black and white job applicants with identical credentials found that in 476 hirings in Washington, DC and Chicago, "unequal treatment of black job seekers was entrenched and widespread, contradicting claims that hiring practices today either favor blacks or are effectively color blind. In 20 percent of the audits, whites were able to advance further through the hiring process than equally qualified blacks. . . .[A] similar study using Hispanic job applicants in San Diego and Chicago found them discriminated against 29 percent of the time in San Diego and 33 percent of the time in Chicago."[20]

A study of faculty hiring practices found that once a minority hiring goal was met, departments stopped seeking out minority applicants and, indeed, pulled their ads from minority publications, regardless of the number of vacancies that occurred subsequently.[21]

Disparate Employment Experiences of Minorities and Women

Large numbers of men and women of color continue either to be concentrated at the bottom of the labor market or to

be absent from it. A 1992 study of California employment by the California Senate Office of Research found that both Latinos and African Americans held the greatest proportion of low-skilled, low-paying jobs in the public and private sectors. In the private sector, Latinos make up 37.5 percent of equipment operators, 55.5 percent of laborers, 33.6 percent of service workers, and only 5.6 percent of professional workers, compared with approximately 30 percent of the state population.[22] This type of employment pattern is repeated many times over in other states.

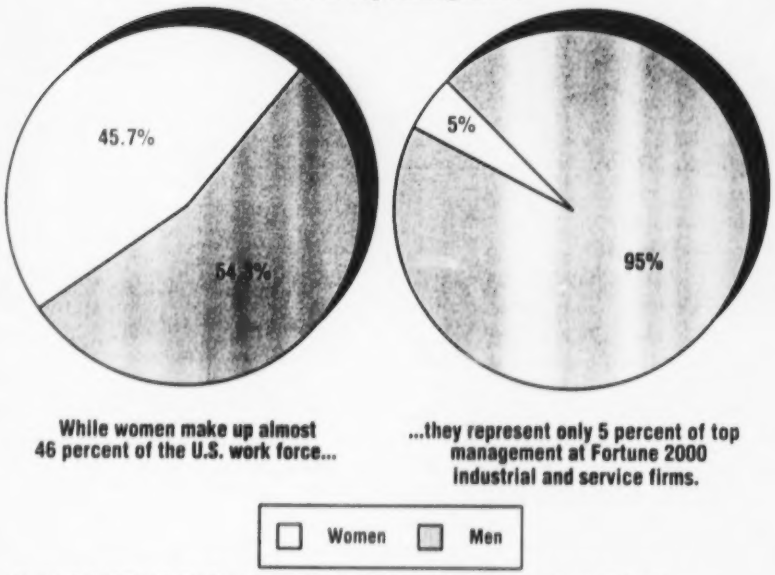
Now, although some can trace their roots in this country back generations or centuries, Latinos have become the target of renewed anti-immigrant sentiment, exemplified most particularly in California by the passage of Proposition 187. That draconian measure is designed not only to discourage new immigration, but also to withhold many benefits from legal as well as illegal immigrants.[23]

In spite of affirmative action, employers tend to favor whites, particularly white males, over equally qualified African American or Hispanic applicants. As Crosby and Clayton have pointed out:

> Much white male resistance to affirmative action may spring from an unwillingness on the part of any given white man to recognize the true extent to which his gender and his ethnicity, and not simply his own individual merit, have won him rungs on the ladder of success.[24]

The Glass Ceiling Commission was launched by the Bush administration, sponsored by Senator Robert Dole (R-KS), and instituted by former Labor Secretary Elizabeth Dole. After three years of study, it issued its report in March 1995. It found that "efforts to shatter the glass ceiling that blocks women and minorities from the upper levels of corporate management was disappointingly slow, even though most corporate chief executives say they believe the problem has been solved for women"[25] (Figure 24).

Figure 24
Women in Top Management


45.7%
54.3%
5%
95%
While women make up almost 46 percent of the U.S. work force...
...they represent only 5 percent of top management at Fortune 2000 industrial and service firms.
Women
Men

Source: Federal Glass Ceiling Commission. "Good for Business: Making Full Use of the Nation's Capital," Washington Post, March 1995.

The commission found three principal barriers to advancement: societal barriers, which may be outside of company control; internal structural barriers, which are the direct result of company recruiting and promotional policies; and governmental barriers, such as lack of enforcement of affirmative action laws. "Before one can even look at the glass ceiling, one must get through the front door.... The fact is large numbers of minorities and women of all races...are nowhere near the front door."[26]

However, it must be noted that white women's status is quantitatively as well as qualitatively different from that of other underrepresented groups because of their race. Thus, in looking at factors such as education, employment, and income, it is important in most instances to disaggregate white women and women of color, lest minority women be obscured in the limbo between "minority" and "women."[27] Such disaggregation in no way denigrates the injustices still suffered by white women but acknowledges that minority women often face even greater obstacles to advancement. For example, in 1993, women of color held only 1.9 percent of full professor positions, compared with 15.1 percent for white women, which means that women of color occupied approximately 11 percent of all full professor positions held by women (Table 19). And although women—both women of color and white women—have made considerable progress in higher education during recent decades, as evidenced by their increasing share of senior administrative positions, data show that they are far from reaching

parity with men. Women held 16 percent of all college presidencies in 1995, compared with 10 percent in 1984. Of the 1995 figure, 16 percent were held by women of color,[28] compared with approximately 10 percent in 1984.

Similarly, despite employment gains during recent years within higher-paying professions (medicine, law, and sciences)—particularly by white women—studies show that only a moderate number of white women are employed in these fields, compared with far fewer men and women of color (Table 1A).

Table 1A
Percentage of White Women and Other Underrepresented Groups in Selected Professions

	White	Minority Men and Women	
Occupation	Women	Blacks	Hispanics
Doctors	22	4	5
Lawyers	24	2	3
Scientists	31	3	1

Source: *Department of Labor, 1994*

Table 2A
Percentage of Full-Time Minority Faculty in Higher Education

	1979	1981	1983	1989	1991	1993
African American	4.3	4.2	4.0	4.5	4.7	4.8
Hispanic	1.5	1.6	1.5	2.0	2.2	2.3
Asian American	2.9	3.2	3.5	4.7	5.1	4.7
American Indian	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.4

Source: *U.S. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission, "EEO-6 Higher Education Staff Information" surveys, 1979, 1981, 1983, 1989, and 1991*
U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, "Fall Staff Survey," 1993

Racial and Gender Pay Gaps Persist

Minorities continue to suffer pay inequities. A recent study by the Economic Policy Institute found that despite increased academic achievement among African Americans over the past 20 years, the disparity in hourly wages paid to college-educated blacks and whites has widened.[29] Hourly wages of African American men with undergraduate and graduate degrees fell to 92 percent of their white counterparts' wages in 1993, compared with 102 percent in 1975. Similarly, wages paid to college-educated black women were 111 percent of white women's wages in 1975, but fell to 90 percent in 1993. The author of the study, Jared Bernstein, attributed these growing disparities to a decline in the enforcement of anti-discrimination laws, changes in the economy, and the dwindling power of unions.[30]

Employment salary data also show gaps in the pay of men and women. According to an American Association of University Women report, "In 1993, the total amount of wages women lost due to pay inequity was nearly $100 billion. The average woman loses approximately $420,000 over a lifetime due to unequal pay practices."[31] Although women earn at least 90 percent of what men earn as mechanics, registered nurses, pharmacists, and postal workers, "in the other 86 occupations tracked by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, women earn 20 to 35 percent less than men. For example, women college and university professors earn 77.1 percent of male professors' wages."[32]

Underrepresentation in Faculty Employment

As discussed earlier in this report, the number of faculty of color has increased during recent decades. Much of this growth can be attributed to effective use of affirmative action programs by colleges and universities to seek out and employ qualified minority faculty. However, despite this growth, faculty of color continue to be grossly underrepresented in American higher education, and, with the exception of Asian American faculty, their respective shares of faculty positions increased rather slowly during the 1980s and early 1990s (Table 2A).

Minorities—particularly women of color—also are clustered on the lower rungs of the professoriate as assistant professors and non-tenure track lecturers, and their presence on many predominantly white campuses is tenuous at best. For example, between 1981 and 1991, the number of minority faculty in non-tenure track positions almost doubled, compared with a 40 percent increase in the number of minority faculty in tenure-track posts. Employment in tenure-track positions may affect faculty retention adversely because these positions typically are less stable, less rewarding monetarily, and less prestigious.[33]

Disparate Spending in Universities Under Land-Grant Appropriations

Despite years of effort, civil rights laws, and court mandates pressing for equalized spending, the state appropriations to 1862 land-grant institutions (white) and to 1890 land-grant institutions (black) continue to be strikingly different (Table 3A).

Table 3A
Annual State Support for Land-Grant Activities for Some Black and White Institutions, 1993–94

Alabama	
Auburn University	$39,402,500
Alabama A&M University*	$404,700
Arkansas	
University of Arkansas at Fayetteville	$34,812,000
University of Arkansas at Pine Bluff*	$0
Delaware	
University of Delaware	$7,658,900
Delaware State University*	$103,700

Source: *Chronicle of Higher Education, December 15, 1995*
*Historically Black Institution

Underrepresentation of Minority Youth in College Enrollments

Youth of color represent an increasing share of the college-age population. However, despite substantial enrollment growth, minorities are severely underrepresented in college enrollments—particularly on predominantly white four-year campuses. Approximately 23 percent of all 18- to 24-year-old high school graduates are American Indian, Hispanic, or African American, compared with only 16 percent of all four-year college students. If one subtracts the number of African American and Hispanic students attending four-year historically black colleges and universities and Hispanic-serving institutions, the figure drops to 12 percent. Minority participation rates have remained low on many majority campuses despite a larger pool of minority high school students who are better prepared academically, as evidenced by higher combined SAT scores and high school graduation rates for these groups (Table 4A). These data suggest that additional affirmative action efforts are needed to address the continued underrepresentation of persons of color in higher education.

Table 4A
High School Graduation Rates and Average SAT Scores by Race/Ethnicity, 1980 and 1994

Race	1980	1994
Graduation Rates		
White	82.6	83.3
African American	69.7	74.6
Hispanic	54.1	57.3
American Indian	N/A*	N/A*
Asian American	N/A*	N/A*
SAT Scores		
White	924	938
African American	690	740
Mexican American	785	799
Puerto Rican	744	778
American Indian	816	837
Asian American	905	951

Source: *U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, "School Enrollment—Social and Economic Characteristics of Students: October 1994," Current Population Reports, Series P–20, and The College Board, 1980 and 1994*

* N/A. Data not available

Students Benefit from Diversity/Multiculturalism

Affirmative action is an effective tool for enhancing campus diversity. Research has shown that students benefit from a strong institutional emphasis on diversity and multiculturalism. A four-year national longitudinal study of the educational outcomes of 25,000 undergraduates at 217 four-year colleges and universities conducted by Alexander Astin[44] found that students of all racial and ethnic backgrounds derive important benefits from institutional diversity efforts and from multicultural curricula and/or experiences. Based on this study, Astin concludes that "emphasizing diversity either as a matter of institutional policy or in faculty research and teaching, as well as providing students with curricular and extra-curricular opportunities to confront racial and multicultural issues, are all associated with widespread beneficial effects on a student's cognitive and affective development."[45]

PERSPECTIVES ON MISPERCEPTIONS ABOUT MINORITY GAINS

In higher education, as in other areas, it is the perception of lost position rather than the reality that fuels anger and backlash. The following data illustrate this point. In 1974, 18,318,000 white Americans between the ages of 18 and 24 were high school graduates (Table 1). By 1994, as a result of declining birthrates among whites, this figure had decreased to 16,670,000. However, in 1974, only 51.7 percent of white high school graduates entered college, whereas in 1994, that share had grown to 67.6 percent. Thus, despite a substantial drop in their overall numbers, a larger percentage of white high school graduates is going to college. The pattern of increased college participation holds true for every ethnic group—African Americans, Hispanics, Asian Americans, and American Indians. Nearly 15 million students now are enrolled in college, and despite continued disparities in minority and white college-going rates, participation by every racial group has increased in recent years. That is partly what the anger on campuses is about—not that minorities are taking white students' places, but that whites, and everyone else, want even more spaces. Yet, whites nationally make up 75 percent of the student body, earn 88 percent of the Ph.Ds awarded to U.S. citizens, constitute 86 percent of college administrators, and hold 88 percent of full-time faculty positions, though they make up only 74 percent of the U.S. population.

The growth of minority participation in higher education has been moderate at best, but it is the perception of the loss of majority privilege that politicians have seized upon and irresponsibly heightened. That fact makes it exceedingly difficult to hold a dispassionate discussion about affirmative action.

Figure 25 shows the perceptions of whites, Hispanics, Asian Americans, and African Americans concerning how well off the average African American is compared with his or her white counterpart, as well as data that depict the current situation.

The data in Figure 25 demonstrate that perceptions about African Americans being as well off as or better off than whites are far from reality. Many whites believe that blacks are nearly as well off as themselves. However, minority perceptions reflect a more accurate view of what actually is taking place in society.

However, it is perceptions that determine behavior. And the perception of the majority of whites is that minorities don't need a helping hand, are just as well off as the average citizen, and no longer suffer from the strictures of past and present discrimination. However, as Figure 26 shows, with the exception of Asian Americans, persons of color are much more likely than whites to be in poverty.

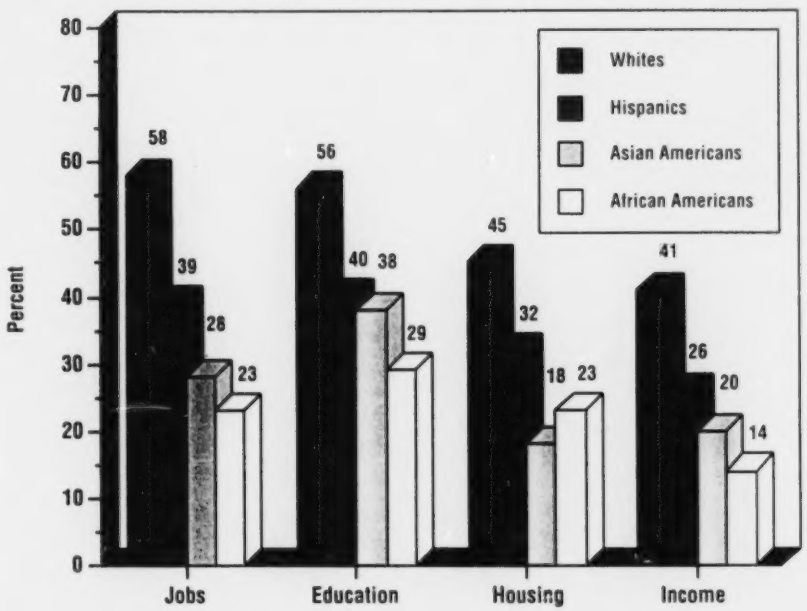
A massive educational campaign is needed by those who support affirmative action because, as Figure 27 demonstrates, the "most informed" whites are more favorably inclined toward affirmative action and have the most realistic picture of minorities' life circumstances.

THE PRESENT LEGAL STATUS OF AFFIRMATIVE ACTION

Without reviewing the lengthy and tortuous legal history of Supreme Court affirmative action rulings, it is instructive to focus on the two most recent cases—*Podberesky* and *Adarand*—because they have been so grossly misinterpreted in the media.[36]

Figure 25
Who's Better Off? Four Windows Shed Light

Percentage of respondents, by race, who think the average African American is as well off as or better off than the average white person in terms of...



JOBS
Reality: In 1994, 28.6 percent of whites held professional or managerial jobs, as compared to 18.7 percent of African Americans. In contrast, 22.5 percent of African Americans worked in low-end service jobs, compared to 12.6 percent of whites.

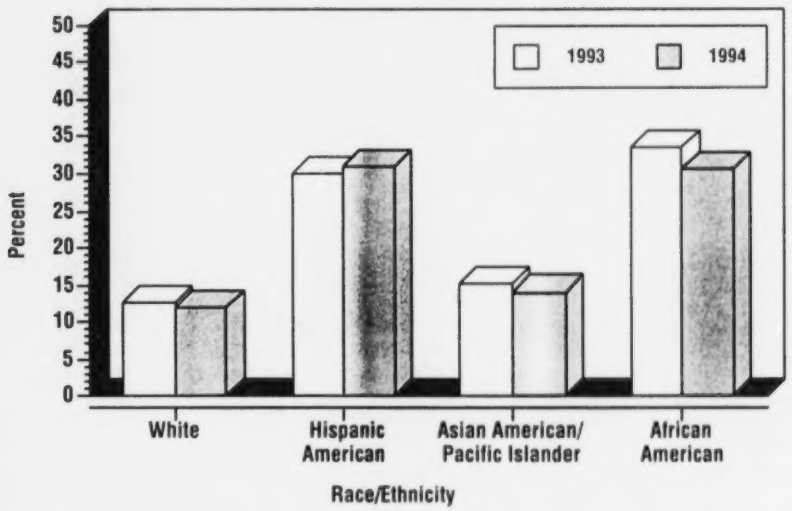
EDUCATION
Reality: Young whites are still more than twice as likely as African Americans to finish college and are less likely to drop out of high school.

HOUSING
Reality: In 1990, the average value of homes owned by whites was $80,300. For African Americans, that figure was $50,500. Whites are nearly twice as likely as African Americans to be homeowners.

INCOME
Reality: In 1990, the average white family earned $37,630, while the average African American family earned $22,470.

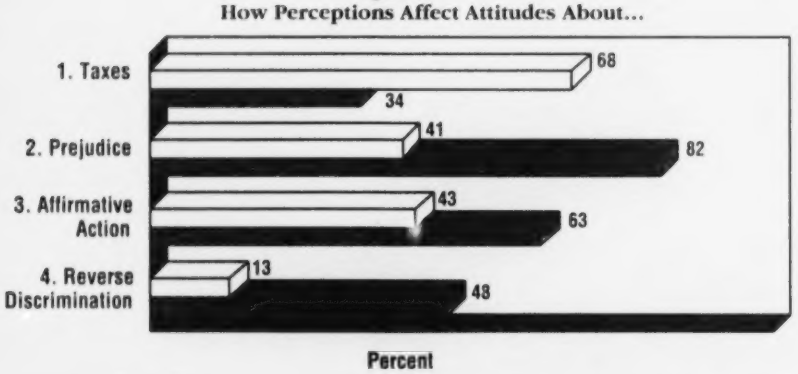
Source: *Washington Post/Kaiser Family Foundation/Harvard University survey, Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1990 Census. Washington Post Poll, 8 October 1995: A1.*

Figure 26
Poverty Rates by Race



Source: *Census Bureau, Washington Post, 6 October 1995.*

Figure 27
How Perceptions Affect Attitudes About...



Most Informed: Those whose perceptions most accurately reflected reality.

Least Informed: Those whose perceptions least accurately reflected reality.

1. **are willing to pay more in TAXES to help low-income minorities.**
2. **believe that minorities can overcome PREJUDICE and work their way up without special help from the government.**
3. **believe that AFFIRMATIVE ACTION should be limited.**
4. **say REVERSE DISCRIMINATION is a bigger national problem than discrimination against minorities.**

Source: *Washington Post Poll, 8 October 1995.*

Podberesky v. Kirwan addressed the constitutionality of an all-black scholarship program initiated by the University of Maryland–College Park as part of an Office of Civil Rights compliance plan and continued by the university as part of its effort to overcome the present effects of past discrimination. Initially, the U.S. District Court found the program to be constitutional. However, upon appeal, the U.S. Court of Appeals for the Fourth Circuit held that the university had failed to demonstrate that it suffered present effects of past discrimination or that the scholarship program was narrowly tailored to overcome underrepresentation and low graduation and retention rates by blacks. For these reasons, the court deemed the program unconstitutional.

The Supreme Court denied the University of Maryland's appeal. By so doing, the court neither ruled against race-based scholarships nor agreed with the appeals court that the university had not submitted sufficient evidence to justify providing such aid. On the other hand, the appeals court did not rule that all race-targeted scholarships are impermissible. The court did rule, contrary to arguments made by the university, that: (1) the university cannot rely on its poor reputation in the minority community to show the effects of past discrimination; (2) a currently racially hostile environment is not necessarily the result of prior discrimination; and, (3) even if remedial action were needed, the scholarship program was not "narrowly tailored," in the court's view, to meet this need. The Fourth Circuit did not address the validity of race-targeted scholarships, nor did it invalidate the consideration of race as a factor in making such awards.[57]

In *Adarand v. Pena*, a white business owner challenged the constitutionality of provisions of a federal highway construction program that provided incentive payments to prime contractors if at

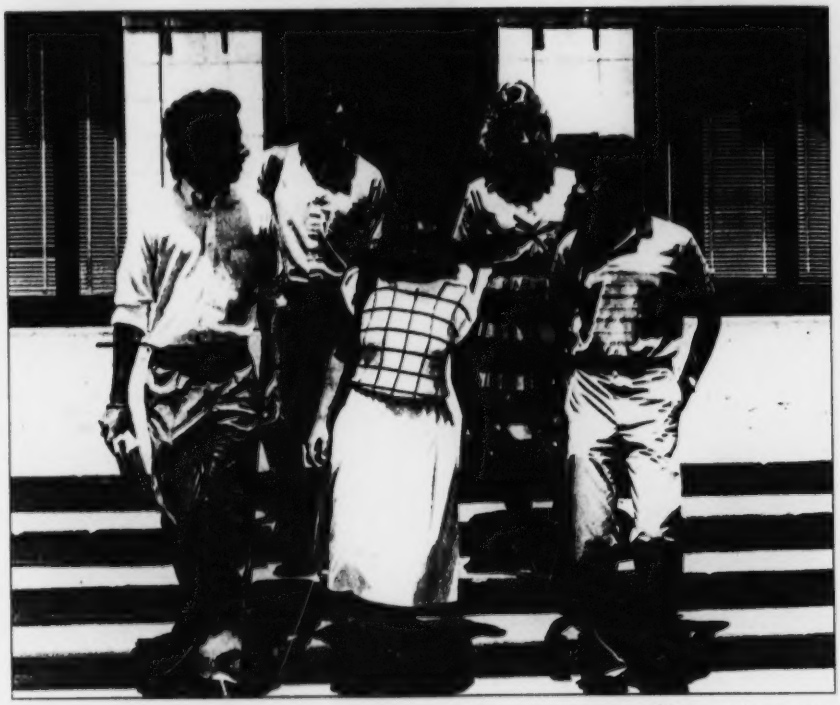


Photo credit: University of Missouri-Kansas City

least 10 percent of their work was subcontracted to minority contractors. A court declared that federal preference must be assessed under the "strict scrutiny" standard established in *Croson*. It overruled the application of the more lenient standard defined in *Metro Broadcasting*, which allowed the federal government to engage more freely in affirmative action than state or local governments. Under the strict scrutiny test, such programs are allowable only if they have a "compelling" reason for using racial classifications and are "narrowly tailored" to achieve their goals. While *Adarand* did not abolish the use of affirmative action in contracting—in fact, the decision explicitly acknowledged that under some circumstances it may be justified—it did establish a new hurdle for it to clear. Just how affirmative action programs can meet this test the court did not reveal.[38] *Adarand* did reaffirm that remedying the effects of past discrimination is a compelling government interest.[39]

Neither case invalidates *Bakke* or Justice Powell's controlling theory of diversity, in which he argued that "the benefits of integrated education accrue to all students, and...affirmative action to increase diversity was appropriate."[40]

Aside from the strictly legal status of affirmative action is its more ominous status in state legislatures, where many legislators are riding the wave of anti-affirmative action sentiment. Legislation, executive orders, and/or state initiatives addressing affirmative action are under consideration in at least 13 states. In six states—California, Colorado, Florida, Illinois, Oregon, and Washington—affirmative action opponents currently are gathering voters' signatures to get initiatives on the ballot that would eliminate or restrict the use of affirmative action.[41] Governors of two states—California and Louisiana—have implemented Executive Orders to curtail or eliminate affirmation action. Anti-affirmative action legislation currently is pending in the state legislatures of California, Georgia, Illinois, Michigan, New York, North Carolina, Pennsylvania, and South Carolina.[42] The Michigan legislation is modeled after the California Civil Rights Initiative.

Although these initiatives have varying support, the most widely publicized is the California Civil Rights Initiative (CCRI), which would eliminate all state and local affirmative action programs in public employment, education, and contracting. If placed on the November ballot, this initiative will follow on the heels of the University of California Board of Regents' decision to prohibit the university from using race, religion, sex, color, ethnicity, or national origin as a criterion for employment effective in January 1996, and for admission beginning in January 1997.

At the national level, "Senator Robert Dole (R-KS) and Representative Charles Canady (R-FL) introduced the 'Equal Opportunity Act of 1995,' which, despite its name, would prohibit considering gender, race, or ethnicity in federal contracts, employment, and other programs. This legislation would end the existing Executive Order as well as the civil rights enforcement policies of the past seven Republican and Democratic presidents. This legislation would devastate the existing Executive Order 11246, as well as the civil rights enforcement policies of the past seven Republican and Democratic presidents. Although the legislation purports to encourage the recruitment of qualified women and minorities, it specifically prohibits the use of any numerical objectives such as goals and timetables. It also would eliminate the use of affirmative action to remedy past or present discrimination, forbid consent decrees that utilize preferences, and outlaw even those programs that adhere to the 'strict scrutiny' standard set by the Supreme Court. Historically black colleges and universities and Indian tribes would be exempt under this proposal. In addition, all existing contracts and agreements would remain in effect."[43]

Yet, despite this negative momentum at the state and national levels, depending upon how the question is phrased, polls consistently show that Americans, by a three to two margin, support federal affirmative action programs as long as they do not involve quotas.[44] A January 1995 *Los Angeles Times* poll showed that when people were asked whether "affirmative action programs designed to help minorities get better jobs and education go too far, or don't go far

enough, or are just about adequate," 55 percent said the programs are adequate or do not go far enough, while only 39 percent said the programs go too far.[45]

The concept of affirmative action suffers much misunderstanding—by politicians and policymakers, the general public, and the media. However, opinion polls show that when Americans are well-informed, have accurate information, and are questioned carefully, they support affirmative action.

DEBUNKING THE MYTHS ABOUT AFFIRMATIVE ACTION

Any number of untruths have developed around affirmative action and have been repeated so often that they have assumed the status of fact—particularly in the heated rhetoric growing out of the complex events surrounding the University of California situation. As a result, we have felt it necessary to spell out each of these myths and to set below them the facts that disprove them, especially those specifically directed to the recent action of the Board of Regents of the University of California.

Myth: *Affirmative action has caused reverse discrimination against whites. Mortimer B. Zuckerman, editor-in-chief of* U.S. News and World Report, *stated in a recent editorial that "A program to end discrimination in the name of justice became a program to visit injustice on a different set of people."*[46]

Reality: A 1995 analysis by the Labor Department found that affirmative action programs do not lead to widespread reverse discrimination claims by whites, and a high proportion of such claims that are filed are found to lack merit. The findings contradicted charges that affirmative action has helped minorities at the expense of white males. The analysis found that fewer than 100 out of 3,000 discrimination cases filed involved reverse discrimination, and in only six cases were such claims substantiated. "The paucity of reported cases casts doubt on the dimension of the reverse discrimination problem," the report said.[47]

Myth: *Affirmative action produces a feeling of inferiority in minority men and women of all races and creates a negative stereotype that they must overcome.*

Reality: The contention that affirmative action creates a negative stereotype in the minds of whites implies naively that whites had no negative stereotypes of minorities before. That theory counters the nation's history. "Any stigma or negative stereotypes associated with race have existed in this country long before affirmative action was ever thought of."[48] Moreover, no stigma seems to be felt by athletes or the sons and daughters of alumni who are admitted to college with less than competitive qualifications.

Now let us address some of the specific myths and facts about affirmative action at the University of California. A number of these myths are generalizable to other institutions.

Myth: *Affirmative action at the University of California has an impact only at the time of admission.*

Reality: Most of the University of California (UC) affirmative action programs are preparatory in nature. The goal of these programs is to increase the number of underrepresented students who are prepared to enroll at the university. As a result, these students qualify fully in the admissions process and are prepared to attend UC as undergraduates.[49]

Myth: *Student affirmative action (SAA) programs discriminate against whites and Asian Americans by taking places away from qualified students and giving them to unqualified students.*

Reality: Competition for admission to Berkeley is extremely high. In fall 1989, more than 5,800 of 21,300 applicants had "straight A" (4.0) averages. Only 3,500 spots were open in the freshman class. Even had no underrepresented students been admitted, Berkeley did not have room for at least 2,300 straight A students.[50]

In 1991, more white students than African Americans were admitted to Berkeley with grade point averages below 3.6.[51]

Myth: *Academic merit is synonymous with "grades" and "test scores."*

Reality: While grades and test scores are primary eligibility measures, they do not fully encompass the variety of factors of which academic merit is composed. Other factors also come into play, including the rigor of a school's academic offerings; the accomplishments of a student in a particular field or subject;

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whether a student made maximum use of the resources available; academic work pursued outside the classroom; and other evidence of intellectual and creative ability.[52]

Myth: *Underrepresented students are admitted to UC solely on the basis of race.*

Reality: All students are admitted on the basis of academic ability. The vast majority of affirmative action students admitted to UC are regularly admissible by UC standards.[53]

Myth: *Pursuit of diversity has lowered the overall academic quality of UC.*

Reality: Students entering UC in 1955 graduated at a rate of 51 percent at the end of six years. Students who entered in 1987 graduated at a rate of 75.3 percent at the end of six years. The proportion of freshmen who graduate from UC is among the highest for publicly funded colleges and universities.[54]

Myth: *Retention of underrepresented students is low; once admitted, they don't succeed.*

Reality:

Table 6A
Second- to Third-Year Persistence (percent)

Fall	1983	1992
All students	74.9	83.9
Affirmative action students	68.5	80.8
Gap	6.4	3.1

"Persistence rates from underrepresented students are increasing dramatically...the gap between the retention rate for students is diminishing."[55]

This brings us to the question of whether replacement of consideration of race with consideration of socioeconomic status (SES), as sociologist Charles Murray and University of California Regent Ward Connerly, among others, have advocated, would have the same result but remove the so-called "stigma of race." The answer is this: "The use of SES in place of ethnicity in the admissions process will not result in the level of ethnic diversity that currently exists at UC campuses."[56]

A computer simulation using three different models of stringency was applied by the University of California's Office of Student Academic Services to three campuses: Berkeley, San Diego, and Santa Cruz. The result of the analysis was: (1) the proportion of American Indian students would be reduced by 30 to 50 percent, and the proportion of American Indian students on the most selective campuses would be reduced by 60 to 70 percent; (2) the proportion of African Americans would be reduced by 40 to 50 percent, and their proportion at the most selective campuses would be reduced by 50 to 60 percent; (3) the proportion of Chicano/Latino students would be reduced by 5 to 15 percent, and at the most selective campuses it would be reduced by 30 to 40 percent; 4) the proportion of Asian American students would increase by 15 to 25 percent, and at the most selective campuses it would increase by 25 to 35 percent; and (5) the proportion of white students would remain static or increase by as much as 5 percent at most campuses, including the most selective campuses.[57] Moreover, the use of socioeconomic status in place of ethnicity would result in an increase in the number of low-income white students and a decrease in the average SAT scores and grade point averages of entering freshmen.

Although a later analysis modified the results somewhat, they followed the same trend as outlined above, indicating the staggering effect on underrepresented minorities. Moreover, "since there are more poor white people than middle-class people of color, a class-based affirmative action policy would necessarily bring in more whites...[and] would reduce the number and proportion of people of color. Thus, the historical advantage of whites, codified in law and practiced for more than a century, is revisited by such a policy."[58]

In place of the present policy, the Regents of the University of California adopted a standard that gives preference to "individuals who, despite having suffered disadvantage economically or in terms of their social environment (such as an abusive or otherwise dysfunctional home or a neighborhood or unwholesome or antisocial influence),"[59] have nonetheless demonstrated that he or she can pursue a course of study to successful college completion.

THE SUCCESS AND PROMISE OF AFFIRMATIVE ACTION

Affirmative action is first and foremost a legitimized constitutional remedy for past discrimination. It is a remedy in keeping with the basic principle that where there is a constitutional violation, there must be a remedy appropriate in scope to that violation.

Vernon Jordan
Former President
National Urban League, 1986

Despite the continued underrepresentation of minorities in many sectors, affirmative action has had dramatic and measurable results in moving minorities and women into meaningful employment in industry and in increasing their participation in higher education as students, faculty, and administrators.

Table 7A
Construction Firms Owned by Minorities and Women

	1972	1987
Minorities	39,875	107,650
Women	14,884	94,308

Source: *Census Bureau, 1992*[60]

In the private sector, minority- and female-owned construction firms have gained a foothold in this most homogeneous of industries—primarily because of affirmative action. In the past, minority firms often were too small to bid on competitive contracts and white-owned firms seldom took on minority firms as subcontractors. As a result, minority firms received only an infinitesimal share of the construction business. With affirmative action, however, cities and local governments began to set aside a portion of their construction business for minority-owned companies or required large, white-owned firms to subcontract with firms owned by minority men and women.

Other areas of employment also have shown dramatic results through aggressive implementation of affirmative action plans or their enforcement by the courts. For example, a consent decree obtained in an AT&T case increased the number of black women in skilled clerical positions by 65 percent from 1978 to 1979. Large increases in minority and female employment among sheet metal and electrical workers also were recorded during approximately the same period.[61]

Table 8A
Percentage of African American, Hispanic, and Female Police Officers in 50 Largest Cities

	1983	1992
African Americans	12.4	17.3
Hispanics	6.8	8.3
Women	N/A	11.6

Source: *University of Nebraska, 1994*

In 1973, the Los Angeles Fire Department (LAFD) was 100 percent male and 94 percent white. A federal court secured a consent decree from the LAFD with specific affirmative action targets. In 1995, the LAFD was 26 percent Hispanic, 13 percent African American, 6 percent Asian American, and 4 percent female.[62]

The data in Tables 7A and 8A refute the charge by some critics that affirmative action benefits only middle-class minorities. Studies show that minorities have made gains in occupations not usually associated with advantaged status, such as law enforcement, fire fighting, and skilled construction work. Moreover, other studies show that of the minority students who were recently admitted to medical school significant numbers were from families of low income and job status.[63]

Similarly, the gains in higher education have been steady, though not quite as dramatic as in some other sectors. As discussed earlier in this report, for each year between 1990 and 1994, the college graduation rate for African Americans increased (except in 1994 at independent institutions); the college graduation rates for American Indians and Hispanics also increased. The rates for Asian Americans and whites have been somewhat less variable (Table 22). African Americans experienced the greatest gains at public institutions, and American Indians posted the greatest gains at independent colleges. African Americans also are graduating from America's selective universities at rates that are nearly comparable to those of white students (Tables 9A and 10A).

In addition to overall increases in college graduation rates, individual affirmative action and diversity programs at myriad campuses have proven successful. However, few such programs adequately document their results. Some programs prepare underrepresented minorities for competitive institutions, while other programs use special initiatives to raise minority achievement to the level of majority achievement once students are admitted, usually through affirmative action. Still others focus on increasing the numbers of minority doctorate recipients. For example, in Connecticut, the Board of Governors for Higher Education embarked on an initiative to increase minority representation in both the student bodies and the staffs of public institutions. In 1985, the board adopted a "Strategic Plan to Ensure Racial and Ethnic Diversity in Connecticut Public Higher Education."[64] The plan set forth three objectives: (1) to increase the number of disadvantaged students prepared for success in college; (2) to increase underrepresented students' access and retention; and (3) to increase the employment of minorities. The board recommended and the legislature approved the funding of a Minority Advancement Program (MAP) that gave priority to three areas: (1) the Connecticut Collegiate Awareness and Preparation Program (ConnCAP); (2) the Minority Enrollment Incentive Program; and (3) the Minority Staff Development and Recruitment Program.

The first initiative, ConnCAP, offers competitive funding for partnerships between colleges and public school districts. These programs provide early intervention and college preparation activities for students identified as "at risk" of dropping out of school prior to high school graduation. The goal of the program is to expand the pool of students who are adequately prepared for success in college. The overall retention rate for participants was 94 percent for the period 1987 to 1995, the overall college retention rate for the period was 95 percent.

A comparison of minority head count data for fall 1984, the baseline year for the

Table 9A
Selective Universities with Improving African American Graduation Rates (percent)

	African American Graduation Rate	
Institution:	***1994***	***1995***
Duke University	82	86
Georgetown University	81	85
Harvard University	92	94
Princeton University	86	90
University of Virginia	79	80
Yale University	88	90

Source: *Journal of Blacks in Higher Education, Summer 1995.*

Table 10A
White and African American Six-Year Graduation Rates at Selective Institutions, 1994 (percent)

Institution	White	African American
Brown University	94	88
Columbia University	89	80
Dartmouth College	95	85
Duke University	94	86
Georgetown University	93	85
Harvard University	97	94
Princeton University	96	90
Stanford University	94	84
University of Virginia	93	80
Yale University	96	90

Source: *Journal of Blacks in Higher Education, Summer, 1995.*

Minority Enrollment Incentive Program, and for fall 1994 shows that minorities made up 8.9 percent of the enrollment in 1984 and 16.4 percent in 1994, exceeding the ten-year goal of 16.1 percent.

The Minority Staff Development and Recruitment Program was established to increase the number of minority staff and professionals. All minorities combined made up 12.6 percent of the professional work force in December 1994, compared with only 7.5 percent in 1983.

In addition to systemwide programs, such as the one in Connecticut, several intensive programs are geared toward special groups of students. Such programs have had dramatic results in raising student achievement levels.

■ At the Georgia Institute of Technology, the failure rate for black and Hispanic students was high. The school started the Challenge Program, which students entered voluntarily the summer before they matriculated. The program consisted of rigorous coursework, high expectations, and rewards for achievement. Georgia Tech's graduation rate of 70.3 percent for black and Hispanic students is nearly twice that of other engineering programs. Other schools are adopting the program.[65]

■ In California, black and Latino students participating in algebra and college preparatory classes in the College Readiness Program (CRP) were given intensive instruction, and their parents were motivated to make them aware of college. As evidence of the program's effectiveness, 85 percent of the students reported an increase in their desire to attend college; 64 percent reported that the program helped them to learn and understand mathematics better; and 61 percent indicated that the program had improved their self-esteem.[66]

■ In New York's Higher Education Opportunities Program (HEOP), students are provided with rigorous support services, such as tutoring, counseling, and adjustment to the college environment. Program effectiveness is demonstrated by 61 percent of participants being on track for graduation, compared with a national graduation rate for regularly admitted students of approximately 50 percent.[67]

■ The McKnight Doctoral Fellowship Program is funded by the Florida Endowment, which was created by a challenge grant from the McKnight Foundation that is matched at a one to two ratio by the State of Florida (one dollar from Florida for every two from the McKnight Foundation). The McKnight Doctoral Fellowship Program is designed to address the underrepresentation of African American faculty at colleges and universities in the state of Florida by increasing the pool of African American citizens holding Ph.D. degrees. Each annual renewal is contingent upon satisfactory performance and normal progress toward the Ph.D. degree. Up to 25 fellowships, which must be used at one of the 11 participating Florida universities, are awarded annually. Since the program's inception in 1984, 285 fellows have participated in the program. To date, 87 fellows have received their doctoral degrees and

156 fellows are matriculating at nine of the 11 participating institutions. The program's retention rate is 85 percent. Approximately 50 percent of the McKnight fellows are in the sciences or in science-related fields.[68]

Photo credit: University of Houston-Downtown

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

In 1988, the American Council on Education and the Education Commission of the States sponsored the Commission on Minority Participation in Education and American Life. The commission's report, *One-Third of A Nation*, issued seven challenges to higher education and other societal institutions, as well as to individual citizens. These challenges led to the development of programs, policies, structures, and institutions that promote the full participation of people of color in the economic, social, political, and educational life of the United States. One of the recommendations specifically addressed affirmative action. The American Council on Education has continued to be guided by this statement, which can be interpreted to cover women of all races as well as all people of color. The recommendation reads as follows:

> **We challenge each major sector of our society to contribute to a new vision of affirmative action around which a broad national consensus can be formed.**
>
> **Strong, dramatically effective efforts are needed at every level of society to promote the spirit and ethic of affirmative action. By that we mean applying the extra energies and resources that lead to the identification, encouragement, training, hiring, and promotion of minority men and women throughout our organizational structures. These efforts will require an increased understanding by the American people of the growing diversity of our population, and a collective determination to build our nation's future strength on this foundation. The success of such endeavors has the potential to defuse the occasionally acrimonious debate over some of the processes now used to carry out affirmative action.**
>
> **Even as we call for increased efforts to assure full, equitable participation of minority men and women in American society, we recognize that affirmative action remains an essential tool for achieving our goal. We are still a long way from the day when legal means will be totally unnecessary. However, now is the time for the American people and their leaders to open a public debate that can lead to a national consensus on affirmative action.**[69]

Affirmative action works, and most Americans, when questioned carefully, support the principle of the program, as long as it does not involve quotas. Programs were initiated with enthusiasm when affirmative action first was announced by President Lyndon B. Johnson in 1965. Although President Nixon issued Order No. 4, which spelled out goals and timetables for affirmative action, he did not otherwise support it, and President Carter, while sympathetic, did little to advance the idea. Presidents Reagan and Bush appointed a conservative majority to the Supreme Court. We now have a conservative majority in Congress, and leading politicians are speaking out against affirmative action. At a time when affirmative action most needs momentum and an acceleration of effort to continue the job, it is coming under attack from vocal critics. What needs to be done—particularly in higher education?

College and University Presidents: College and university presidents have a special opportunity and responsibility to present the educational benefits of affirmative action to their campuses and to the communities where the campuses are located.

Faculty and Administrators: Students have a right to be educated about the changing nature of the U.S. population and the concomitant need for the education of and full participation in society by all citizens, regardless of their race, ethnicity, or gender. It is the job of educators to present the historical reasons for affirmative action, as well as its appropriate application.

Students: Individual students and student organizations have an obligation to educate themselves about issues regard-

ing affirmative action and to speak out on their campuses and in their communities about the importance of providing equal educational opportunities accompanied by programs to promote success.

Governing Board Members: Because governing board members hold in trust the fiscal health of their institutions and are directly responsible for choosing the leadership and for setting its general policies, they have a responsibility to educate themselves about the meaning of affirmative action and its legal requirements.

Higher Education Associations: For higher education associations to serve their member institutions, their staff must be knowledgeable and articulate about all the dimensions of affirmative action and its implications for the future of education and the nation. Association statements supporting affirmative action and its educational efficacy are crucial.

Business and Industry: The business sector has been quick to recognize the importance of a trained work force, and many companies also have noted the role affirmative action plays in achieving that goal. These same enlightened companies have made clear by their actions that the health of their enterprises depends on their internal attention to promotion and hiring policies that are built upon affirmative action principles. Continued support of affirmative action from this sector is critical.

The Media: The story of affirmative action often has been told using incomplete, inaccurate, or exaggerated information that compromises the opportunities for good conversation about the various dimensions of the problems underlying the need for affirmative action. The challenge that people in the media face is to attend carefully to the language they use, to make sure that it accurately describes the meaning of what is being discussed. In addition, it is imperative that anecdotal stories and isolated incidents not be used to distort the original purposes of affirmative action.

The Public: Making recommendations to the general public is an act of faith, but is important nonetheless. The public—especially those who are parents of students or prospective students—has a responsibility to demand the facts about what has been accomplished by affirmative action; to educate itself about our increasingly pluralistic society and each person's stake in it; and to challenge people who use affirmative action to cover up their own shortcomings.

This report is designed to offer historical, social, economic, and educational reasons to help readers understand the need for affirmative action, to build support for its continuation, and to build coalitions of knowledgeable people to defend it. The importance of this work is deeply connected to the future success of our society and to the right of each U.S. citizen to strive to be the best he or she can be.

Epilogue

In March 1996, subsequent to the completion of this report, the U.S. Court of Appeals for the Fifth Circuit barred the University of Texas (UT) Law School from considering race and ethnicity as factors in student admissions to promote diversity. The court ruled that the UT Austin Law School had violated the equal protection clause of the U.S. Constitution and had discriminated against four white applicants. The Fifth Circuit's decision reversed a 1994 U.S. District Court ruling that upheld the university's right to consider race as a factor in admissions. However, the 1994 ruling barred the use of separate admissions lists and different minimum test scores and grade point averages for students of color and white students. As a result of this earlier decision, admission practices at the UT Law School were revised in accordance to the ruling.

Although the recent *Hopwood v. Texas* decision applies only to institutions within the Fifth Circuit—Texas, Louisiana, and Mississippi—the ruling has broader implications for colleges and universities throughout the country. At the heart of the court's decision in *Hopwood* is a question of fundamental importance to all higher education institutions: Is the promotion of student diversity a compelling interest that justifies taking race into account to a limited extent in determining which applicants to admit? Two members of the three-judge panel that decided this case held that diversity is not a compelling interest by which race-conscious admissions practices can be justified. By so doing, they flatly rejected the views expressed by Justice Powell in the Supreme Court's 1978 *Bakke* decision. In deciding this case, the appeals court applied the "strict scrutiny" standard established by the Supreme Court in *City of Richmond v. Croson* (1989) and in *Adarand Constructors v. Peña* (1995).

The state of Texas has appealed the ruling to the U.S. Supreme Court. The appeals court has granted a stay that will remain in effect until final disposition of the case. This means that colleges and universities in the three states under the jurisdiction of the Fifth Circuit are not bound by *Hopwood* until after the Supreme Court takes action. However, a class action lawsuit has been filed against the law school on behalf of a group of students who failed to gain admission to the class of 1994, claiming that they were discriminated against because race was used as a factor in admissions. Another suit has been filed by a student denied admission to the graduate program of the university's College of Education.

Whether or not the *Hopwood* decision in fact will be a crippling blow that curtails the use of affirmative action practices to facilitate greater diversity within higher education is yet to be decided. In the meantime, *Bakke* continues to be the controlling decision on which colleges and universities should base their institutional practices.

In a recent statement, ACE President Robert H. Atwell reiterated the Council's unwavering support for the use of affirmative action as a means to achieve greater diversity on our nation's college and university campuses. He stated:

"The American Council on Education and its members have long held, based on extensive analysis, that inclusionary efforts and the promotion of diversity are indispensable if the nation's colleges and universities are to serve their core missions and maintain public confidence. The Board of this organization has taken an unequivocal position in support of affirmative action in the college admissions process, in the belief that such efforts help to fulfill valid and essential educational goals.

"In the lifetimes of children born today, white non-Hispanic Americans will be a minority. The majority of our citizenry within those lifetimes will be the very students we must prepare for the intensely competitive global economy that will be their inheritance. In addition, the United States cannot hope to survive and prosper as a democracy unless we take affirmative steps to guarantee that all members of our society have the opportunity to pursue the kind of education that will allow them to participate fully in the life of the nation. We in higher education, and the American Council on Education, will never abandon our commitment nor be passive in the face of the nation's imperative need to sustain hard-won progress toward a society in which the doors are opened to all qualified to enter." [70]

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Table 1

High School Completion Rates and College Participation Rates by Race/Ethnicity, 1974 to 1994

Year	18- to 24-Year-Olds						14- to 24-Year-Olds
			High School Graduates				
	All Persons (thousands)	Enrolled-in-College Rate (percent)	Number Completed (thousands)	Completion Rate (percent)	Number Enrolled in College (thousands)	Enrolled-in-College Rate (percent)	Ever-Enrolled-in-College Rate (percent)
ALL RACES							
1974	25,670	24.6	20,725	80.7	6,316	30.5	51.3
1975	26,387	26.3	21,326	80.8	6,935	32.5	52.5
1976	26,919	26.7	21,677	80.5	7,181	33.1	53.4
1977	27,331	26.1	22,008	80.5	7,142	32.5	52.0
1978	27,647	25.3	22,309	80.7	6,995	31.4	51.4
1979	27,974	25.0	22,421	80.1	6,991	31.2	51.6
1980	28,957	25.6	23,413	80.9	7,400	31.6	51.1
1981	28,965	26.2	23,343	80.6	7,575	32.5	51.7
1982	28,846	26.6	23,291	80.7	7,678	33.0	52.7
1983	28,580	26.2	22,988	80.4	7,477	32.5	52.8
1984	28,031	27.1	22,870	81.6	7,591	33.2	53.0
1985	27,122	27.8	22,349	82.4	7,537	33.7	54.3
1986	26,512	28.2	21,768	82.1	7,477	34.3	55.0
1987	25,950	29.6	21,118	81.4	7,693	36.4	56.5
1988	25,733	30.3	20,900	81.2	7,791	37.3	57.5
1989	25,261	30.9	20,461	81.0	7,804	38.1	57.9
1990	24,852	32.0	20,311	82.3	7,964	39.1	58.9
1991	24,572	33.3	19,883	80.9	8,172	41.1	60.7
1992	24,278	34.4	19,921	82.1	8,343	41.9	65.6
1993[d]	25,522	33.8	20,844	81.7	8,630	41.4	65.3
1994	25,254	34.6	20,581	81.5	8,729	42.4	66.9
WHITE							
1974	22,141	25.2	18,318	82.7	5,589	30.5	51.7
1975	22,703	26.9	18,883	83.2	6,116	32.4	52.7
1976	23,119	27.1	19,045	82.4	6,276	33.0	53.5
1977	23,430	26.5	19,291	82.3	6,209	32.2	52.1
1978	23,650	25.7	19,526	82.6	6,077	31.1	51.3
1979	23,895	25.6	19,616	82.1	6,120	31.2	51.7
1980	24,482	26.2	20,214	82.6	6,423	31.8	51.4
1981	24,486	26.7	20,123	82.2	6,549	32.5	52.1
1982	24,206	27.2	19,944	82.4	6,694	33.1	53.1
1983	23,899	27.0	19,643	82.2	6,463	32.9	53.4
1984	23,347	28.0	19,373	83.0	6,256	33.7	53.8
1985	22,632	28.7	18,916	83.6	6,500	34.4	55.3
1986	22,020	28.6	18,291	83.1	6,307	34.5	55.5
1987	21,493	30.2	17,689	82.3	6,483	36.6	57.1
1988	21,261	31.3	17,491	82.3	6,659	38.1	58.6
1989	20,825	31.8	17,089	82.1	6,631	38.8	58.9
1990	20,393	32.5	16,823	82.5	6,635	39.4	60.1
1991	19,980	34.1	16,324	81.7	6,813	41.7	62.3
1992	19,671	35.2	16,379	83.3	6,916	42.2	67.0
1993[d]	20,493	34.5	16,989	82.9	7,074	41.6	66.5
1994	20,171	35.3	16,670	82.6	7,118	42.7	67.6

Continued on next page

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Note: College participation rates were calculated using the total population and high school graduates as the bases. The ever-enrolled-in-college participation rate includes 14- to 24-year-olds who either were enrolled in college or had completed one or more years of college. The change in the educational attainment question and the college completion categories from "four or more years of college" to "at least some college" in 1992 caused an increase of approximately 5 percentage points in the proportion of 14- to 24-year-old high school graduates who had enrolled in or who had completed one or more years of college. The high school completion rates were calculated using the total population as the base. High school graduates are persons who have completed four years of high school or more for 1967 to 1991. Beginning in 1992, they were persons whose highest degree was a high school diploma (including equivalency) or higher. Data for 1986 and later use a revised tabulation system. Improvements in edits and population estimation procedures caused slight changes in estimates for 1986. Data for 1980 through 1992 use 1980 Census–based estimates, and data for 1993 and 1994 use 1990 Census–based estimates.

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Table 1 - Continued

High School Completion Rates and College Participation Rates by Race/Ethnicity, 1974 to 1994

Year	18- to 24-Year-Olds						14- to 24-Year-Olds
			High School Graduates				
	All Persons (thousands)	Enrolled-in-College Rate (percent)	Number Completed (thousands)	Completion Rate (percent)	Number Enrolled in College (thousands)	Enrolled-in-College Rate (percent)	Ever-Enrolled-in-College Rate (percent)
AFRICAN AMERICAN							
1974	3,105	17.9	2,083	67.1	555	26.6	44.8
1975	3,213	20.7	2,081	64.8	665	32.0	48.1
1976	3,315	22.6	2,239	67.5	749	33.5	50.4
1977	3,387	21.3	2,286	67.5	721	31.5	46.9
1978	3,452	20.1	2,340	67.8	694	29.7	47.8
1979	3,510	19.8	2,356	67.1	696	29.5	48.4
1980	3,721	19.2	2,592	69.7	715	27.6	45.9
1981	3,778	19.9	2,678	70.9	750	28.0	44.8
1982	3,872	19.8	2,744	70.9	767	28.0	45.5
1983	3,865	19.2	2,740	70.9	741	27.0	45.0
1984	3,862	20.4	2,885	74.7	786	27.2	45.2
1985	3,716	19.8	2,810	75.6	734	26.1	43.8
1986	3,653	22.2	2,795	76.5	812	29.1	47.8
1987	3,603	22.8	2,739	76.0	823	30.0	48.7
1988	3,568	21.1	2,680	75.1	752	28.1	46.6
1989	3,559	23.5	2,708	76.1	835	30.8	49.1
1990	3,520	25.4	2,710	77.0	894	33.0	48.0
1991	3,504	23.6	2,630	75.1	828	31.5	46.0
1992	3,521	25.3	2,625	74.6	886	33.8	53.3
1993[a]	3,666	24.5	2,747	74.9	897	32.7	54.0
1994	3,661	27.3	2,818	77.0	1,001	35.5	59.2
HISPANIC[b]							
1974	1,506	18.1	842	55.9	272	32.3	47.8
1975	1,446	20.4	832	57.5	295	35.5	50.8
1976	1,551	19.9	862	55.6	309	35.8	48.9
1977	1,609	17.2	880	54.7	277	31.5	43.8
1978	1,672	15.2	935	55.9	254	27.2	43.2
1979	1,754	16.6	968	55.2	292	30.2	45.7
1980	2,033	16.1	1,099	54.1	327	29.8	47.3
1981	2,052	16.7	1,144	55.8	342	29.9	45.8
1982	2,001	16.8	1,153	57.6	337	29.2	47.3
1983	2,025	17.2	1,110	54.8	349	31.4	48.4
1984	2,018	17.9	1,212	60.1	362	29.9	46.0
1985	2,221	16.9	1,396	62.9	375	26.9	46.7
1986	2,514	18.2	1,507	59.9	458	30.4	45.6
1987	2,592	17.6	1,597	61.6	455	28.5	44.2
1988	2,642	17.0	1,458	55.2	450	30.9	47.1
1989	2,818	16.1	1,576	55.9	453	28.7	43.6
1990	2,749	15.8	1,498	54.5	435	29.0	44.7
1991	2,874	18.0	1,498	52.1	516	34.4	47.6
1992	2,754	21.3	1,578	57.3	586	37.1	55.0
1993[a]	3,663	21.6	2,049	60.9	728	35.5	55.6
1994	3,523	18.8	1,995	56.6	662	33.2	54.3

[a] 1993 data were revised based on 1990 Census–based estimates.

[b] Hispanics may be of any race.

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Table 2

High School Completion Rates and College Participation Rates by Race/Ethnicity and Gender, 1974 to 1994

Year	18- to 24-Year-Olds: All Persons (thousands)	18- to 24-Year-Olds: Enrolled-in-College Rate (percent)	14- to 24-Year-Olds: High School Graduates: Number Completed (thousands)	14- to 24-Year-Olds: High School Graduates: Completion Rate (percent)	14- to 24-Year-Olds: High School Graduates: Number Enrolled in College (thousands)	14- to 24-Year-Olds: High School Graduates: Enrolled-in-College Rate (percent)	14- to 24-Year-Olds: Ever-Enrolled-in-College Rate (percent)
ALL RACES							
MEN							
1974	12,315	27.7	9,835	79.9	3,411	34.7	55.6
1975	12,724	29.0	10,214	80.3	3,693	36.2	56.1
1976	13,012	28.2	10,312	79.2	3,673	35.6	55.7
1977	13,218	28.1	10,440	79.0	3,712	35.6	54.2
1978	13,385	27.1	10,614	79.3	3,621	34.1	52.6
1979	13,571	25.8	10,657	78.5	3,508	32.9	52.4
1980	14,107	26.3	11,125	78.9	3,717	33.4	51.4
1981	14,127	27.1	11,052	78.2	3,833	34.7	52.1
1982	14,083	27.2	11,120	79.0	3,837	34.5	53.0
1983	14,003	27.3	10,906	77.9	3,820	35.0	52.7
1984	13,744	28.6	10,914	79.4	3,929	36.0	53.6
1985	13,199	28.4	10,614	80.4	3,749	35.3	54.6
1986	12,921	28.7	10,338	80.0	3,702	35.8	54.4
1987	12,626	30.6	10,030	79.4	3,867	38.6	56.3
1988	12,491	30.2	9,832	78.7	3,770	38.3	56.6
1989	12,325	30.2	9,700	78.7	3,717	38.3	57.2
1990	12,134	32.3	9,778	80.6	3,922	40.1	58.0
1991	12,036	32.9	9,493	78.9	3,954	41.7	59.2
1992	11,965	32.7	9,576	80.0	3,912	40.9	64.1
1993[3]	12,712	33.3	10,142	79.8	4,237	41.8	63.9
1994	12,557	33.1	9,970	79.4	4,152	41.6	64.9
WOMEN							
1974	13,355	21.8	10,889	81.5	2,905	26.7	47.5
1975	13,663	23.7	11,113	81.3	3,243	29.2	49.2
1976	13,907	25.2	11,365	81.7	3,508	30.9	51.4
1977	14,113	24.3	11,569	82.0	3,431	29.7	50.0
1978	14,262	23.7	11,694	82.0	3,373	28.8	50.3
1979	14,403	24.2	11,763	81.7	3,482	29.6	50.8
1980	14,851	24.8	12,287	82.7	3,682	30.0	50.8
1981	14,838	25.2	12,290	82.8	3,741	30.4	51.3
1982	14,763	26.0	12,171	82.4	3,841	31.6	52.4
1983	14,577	25.1	12,082	82.9	3,657	30.3	52.8
1984	14,287	25.6	11,956	83.7	3,662	30.6	52.4
1985	13,923	27.2	11,736	84.3	3,788	32.3	54.0
1986	13,591	27.8	11,430	84.1	3,775	33.0	55.5
1987	13,324	28.7	11,086	83.2	3,826	34.5	56.7
1988	13,242	30.4	11,068	83.6	4,021	36.3	58.3
1989	12,936	31.6	10,758	83.2	4,065	38.0	58.6
1990	12,718	31.8	10,533	82.8	4,042	38.4	59.8
1991	12,536	33.6	10,391	82.9	4,218	41.0	62.1
1992	12,313	36.0	10,344	84.0	4,429	42.8	66.9
1993[3]	12,810	34.3	10,702	83.5	4,393	41.0	66.6
1994	12,696	36.0	10,611	83.6	4,576	43.1	68.7

Continued on next page

Source: Bruno, Rosalind and Andrea Addams. *School Enrollment–Social and Economic Characteristics of Students: October 1994*. U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census. Current Population Reports P-20 Series. Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1996.

Note: College participation rates were calculated using the total population and high school graduates as the bases. The ever-enrolled-in-college participation rate includes 14- to 24-year-olds who either were enrolled in college or had completed one or more years of college. The change in the educational attainment question and the college completion categories from "four or more years of college" to "at least some college" in 1992 caused an increase of approximately 5 percentage points in the proportion of 14- to 24-year-old high school graduates who had enrolled in or who had completed one or more years of college. The high school completion rates were calculated using the total population as the base. High school graduates are persons who have completed four years of high school or more for 1967 to 1991. Beginning in 1992, they were persons whose highest degree was a high school diploma (including equivalency) or higher. Data for 1986 and later use a revised tabulation system. Improvements in edits and population estimation procedures caused slight changes in estimates for 1986. Data for 1980 through 1992 use 1980 Census–based estimates, and data for 1993 and 1994 use 1990 Census–based estimates.

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Table 2 - Continued

High School Completion Rates and College Participation Rates by Race/Ethnicity and Gender, 1974 to 1994

Year	18- to 24-Year-Olds						14- to 24-Year-Olds
			High School Graduates				
	All Persons (thousands)	Enrolled-in-College Rate (percent)	Number Completed (thousands)	Completion Rate (percent)	Number Enrolled in College (thousands)	Enrolled-in-College Rate (percent)	Ever-Enrolled-in-College Rate (percent)
WHITE							
MEN							
1974	10,722	28.3	8,768	81.8	3,035	34.6	55.9
1975	11,050	30.1	9,139	82.7	3,326	36.4	56.6
1976	11,279	28.8	9,186	81.4	3,250	35.4	55.9
1977	11,445	28.7	9,263	80.9	3,286	35.5	54.5
1978	11,572	27.6	9,438	81.6	3,195	33.9	52.5
1979	11,721	26.5	9,457	80.7	3,104	32.8	52.7
1980	12,011	27.3	9,686	80.6	3,275	33.8	51.8
1981	12,040	27.7	9,619	79.9	3,340	34.7	52.8
1982	11,874	27.9	9,611	80.9	3,308	34.4	53.2
1983	11,787	28.3	9,411	79.8	3,335	35.4	53.5
1984	11,521	29.6	9,348	81.1	3,406	36.4	54.2
1985	11,108	29.3	9,077	81.7	3,254	35.8	55.5
1986	10,814	29.3	8,780	81.2	3,168	36.1	55.1
1987	10,549	31.2	8,498	80.6	3,289	38.7	56.7
1988	10,380	31.4	8,268	79.7	3,260	39.4	57.9
1989	10,240	31.5	8,177	79.9	3,223	39.4	58.5
1990	10,053	32.7	8,157	81.1	3,292	40.3	58.7
1991	9,896	33.0	7,843	79.3	3,270	41.9	59.9
1992	9,744	33.8	7,911	81.2	3,291	41.6	65.8
1993[a]	10,294	34.0	8,338	81.0	3,498	42.0	65.1
1994	10,123	33.6	8,168	80.7	3,406	41.7	65.4
WOMEN							
1974	11,419	22.4	9,551	83.6	2,555	26.8	47.8
1975	11,653	23.9	9,743	83.6	2,790	28.6	49.1
1976	11,840	25.6	9,860	83.3	3,026	30.7	51.3
1977	11,985	24.4	10,029	83.7	2,923	29.1	50.0
1978	12,078	23.9	10,088	83.5	2,882	28.6	50.3
1979	12,174	24.8	10,157	83.4	3,015	29.7	50.8
1980	12,471	25.2	10,528	84.4	3,147	29.9	50.9
1981	12,446	25.8	10,504	84.4	3,208	30.5	51.6
1982	12,332	26.6	10,333	83.8	3,285	31.8	52.9
1983	12,112	25.8	10,233	84.5	3,129	30.6	53.4
1984	11,826	26.4	10,026	84.8	3,120	31.1	53.4
1985	11,524	28.2	9,840	85.4	3,247	33.0	55.2
1986	11,205	28.0	9,509	84.9	3,139	33.0	55.8
1987	10,944	29.2	9,189	84.0	3,192	34.7	57.5
1988	10,881	31.2	9,223	84.8	3,399	36.9	59.2
1989	10,586	32.2	8,913	84.2	3,409	38.2	59.2
1990	10,340	32.3	8,666	83.8	3,344	38.6	61.4
1991	10,119	35.0	8,481	83.8	3,544	42.1	64.5
1992	9,928	36.5	8,468	85.3	3,625	42.8	68.1
1993[a]	10,199	35.1	8,651	84.8	3,576	41.3	67.9
1994	10,048	37.0	8,503	84.6	3,714	43.7	69.7

Continued on next page

[a] 1993 data were revised based on 1990 Census-based estimates.

Table 2 - Continued

High School Completion Rates and College Participation Rates by Race/Ethnicity and Gender, 1974 to 1994

Year	18- to 24-Year-Olds						14- to 24-Year-Olds
			High School Graduates				
	All Persons (thousands)	Enrolled-in-College Rate (percent)	Number Completed (thousands)	Completion Rate (percent)	Number Enrolled in College (thousands)	Enrolled-in-College Rate (percent)	Ever-Enrolled-in-College Rate (percent)
AFRICAN AMERICAN							
MEN							
1974	1,396	20.1	919	65.8	280	30.5	47.3
1975	1,451	20.3	897	61.8	294	32.8	50.5
1976	1,503	22.0	936	62.3	331	35.4	50.3
1977	1,528	20.2	970	63.5	309	31.9	47.6
1978	1,554	19.6	956	61.5	305	31.9	49.3
1979	1,577	19.3	973	61.7	304	31.2	46.7
1980	1,690	17.3	1,115	66.0	293	26.3	44.1
1981	1,730	18.8	1,154	66.7	325	28.2	42.3
1982	1,786	18.5	1,171	65.6	331	28.3	44.5
1983	1,807	18.3	1,202	66.5	331	27.5	43.6
1984	1,811	20.3	1,272	70.2	367	28.9	45.2
1985	1,720	20.1	1,244	72.3	345	27.7	43.6
1986	1,687	20.7	1,220	72.3	349	28.6	44.4
1987	1,666	22.6	1,188	71.3	377	31.7	48.3
1988	1,653	18.0	1,189	71.9	297	25.0	42.8
1989	1,654	19.6	1,195	72.2	324	27.1	45.8
1990	1,634	26.1	1,240	75.9	426	34.4	48.9
1991	1,635	23.1	1,174	71.8	378	32.2	47.3
1992	1,676	21.2	1,211	72.3	356	29.7	49.4
1993[a]	1,703	22.7	1,240	72.8	387	31.2	50.1
1994	1,733	25.4	1,277	73.7	440	34.5	57.9
WOMEN							
1974	1,709	16.2	1,167	68.3	277	23.7	42.9
1975	1,761	21.1	1,182	67.1	372	31.5	46.4
1976	1,813	23.0	1,302	71.8	417	32.0	50.3
1977	1,859	22.2	1,317	70.8	413	31.4	46.2
1978	1,897	20.6	1,384	73.0	390	28.2	46.7
1979	1,934	20.3	1,383	71.5	392	28.3	49.6
1980	2,031	20.8	1,475	72.6	422	28.6	47.4
1981	2,049	20.7	1,526	74.5	424	27.8	46.6
1982	2,086	20.9	1,572	75.4	436	27.7	46.3
1983	2,058	20.0	1,539	74.8	411	26.7	46.3
1984	2,052	20.4	1,613	78.6	419	26.0	45.1
1985	1,996	19.5	1,565	78.4	389	24.9	44.0
1986	1,966	23.5	1,576	80.1	462	29.4	50.4
1987	1,937	23.0	1,550	80.0	445	28.7	48.9
1988	1,915	23.8	1,492	77.9	455	30.5	49.6
1989	1,905	26.8	1,511	79.3	511	33.8	51.8
1990	1,886	24.8	1,468	77.8	467	31.8	47.3
1991	1,869	24.1	1,455	77.8	460	30.9	45.2
1992	1,845	28.8	1,417	76.8	531	37.5	56.6
1993[a]	1,965	26.0	1,508	76.7	511	33.9	57.2
1994	1,928	29.1	1,542	80.0	561	36.4	60.3

Continued on next page

[a] 1993 data were revised based on 1990 Census–based estimates

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Table 2 - Continued

High School Completion Rates and College Participation Rates by Race/Ethnicity and Gender, 1974 to 1994

Year	18- to 24-Year-Olds						14- to 24-Year-Olds
			High School Graduates				
	All Persons (thousands)	Enrolled-in-College Rate (percent)	Number Completed (thousands)	Completion Rate (percent)	Number Enrolled in College (thousands)	Enrolled-in-College Rate (percent)	Ever-Enrolled-in-College Rate (percent)
HISPANIC [a]							
MEN							
1974	720	19.6	390	54.2	141	36.2	51.4
1975	678	21.4	383	56.5	145	37.9	55.4
1976	701	21.4	378	53.9	150	39.7	51.8
1977	754	18.4	396	52.5	139	35.1	46.5
1978	781	16.1	420	53.8	126	30.0	46.3
1979	837	18.3	454	54.2	153	33.7	49.5
1980	1,012	15.8	518	51.2	160	30.9	49.5
1981	988	16.6	498	50.4	164	32.9	48.6
1982	944	14.9	519	55.0	141	27.2	44.8
1983	968	15.7	476	49.2	152	31.9	47.4
1984	956	16.1	549	57.4	154	28.1	45.7
1985	1,132	14.8	659	58.2	168	25.5	44.9
1986	1,339	17.4	769	57.4	233	30.3	44.4
1987	1,337	18.5	795	59.5	247	31.1	45.1
1988	1,375	16.6	724	52.7	228	31.5	48.4
1989	1,439	14.7	756	52.5	211	27.9	42.7
1990	1,403	15.3	753	53.7	214	28.4	46.5
1991	1,503	14.0	719	47.8	211	29.3	42.2
1992	1,384	17.8	720	52.0	247	34.3	52.2
1993[b]	1,710	19.8	1,005	58.8	338	33.6	51.2
1994	1,896	16.5	1,021	53.8	312	30.6	52.7
WOMEN							
1974	786	16.4	451	57.4	129	28.6	43.4
1975	769	19.5	449	58.4	150	33.4	46.7
1976	850	18.8	483	56.8	160	33.1	46.5
1977	855	16.3	483	56.5	139	28.8	41.6
1978	891	14.4	516	57.9	128	24.8	40.0
1979	917	15.3	516	56.3	140	27.1	42.3
1980	1,021	16.2	579	56.7	165	28.5	45.4
1981	1,064	16.7	646	60.7	178	27.6	43.4
1982	1,056	18.6	634	60.0	196	30.9	49.2
1983	1,057	18.7	634	60.0	198	31.2	49.7
1984	1,061	19.5	661	62.3	207	31.3	46.6
1985	1,091	18.8	734	67.3	205	27.9	48.0
1986	1,175	19.2	739	62.9	226	30.6	46.8
1987	1,256	16.6	801	63.8	208	26.0	43.2
1988	1,267	17.7	736	58.1	224	30.4	46.0
1989	1,377	17.7	823	59.8	244	29.6	44.5
1990	1,346	16.4	745	55.3	221	29.7	43.0
1991	1,372	22.2	780	56.9	305	39.1	52.4
1992	1,369	24.8	860	62.8	339	39.4	57.4
1993[b]	1,652	23.6	1,045	63.3	390	37.3	60.1
1994	1,628	21.5	973	59.8	350	36.0	55.9

[a] Hispanics may be of any race.

[b] 1993 data were revised based on 1990 Census-based estimates.

Table 3

Total Enrollment in Higher Education by Type of Institution and Race/Ethnicity: Selected Years, Fall 1984 to Fall 1994

(Numbers in Thousands)

	1984	1986	1988	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	Percent Change 1984–94	Percent Change 1993–94
ALL INSTITUTIONS	12,235	12,504	13,043	13,820	14,359	14,486	14,305	14,279	16.7	-0.2
White (non-Hispanic)	9,815	9,921	10,283	10,723	10,990	10,875	10,600	10,416	6.1	-1.7
Total Minority	2,085	2,238	2,400	2,706	2,953	3,164	3,248	3,407	63.4	4.9
African American (non-Hispanic)	1,076	1,082	1,130	1,247	1,335	1,393	1,413	1,448	34.6	2.5
Hispanic	535	618	680	783	867	955	989	1,057	97.6	6.9
Asian American[a]	390	448	497	573	637	697	724	774	98.5	6.8
American Indian[b]	84	90	93	103	114	119	122	128	52.4	5.0
Nonresident Alien	335	345	361	391	416	448	457	456	36.1	-0.1
FOUR-YEAR INSTITUTIONS	7,708	7,824	8,175	8,579	8,707	8,764	8,739	8,750	13.5	0.1
White (non-Hispanic)	6,301	6,337	6,582	6,769	6,791	6,744	6,639	6,565	4.2	-1.1
Total Minority	1,124	1,195	1,292	1,486	1,573	1,663	1,734	1,820	61.9	5.0
African American (non-Hispanic)	617	615	656	723	758	791	814	834	35.2	2.4
Hispanic	246	278	296	358	383	410	432	463	88.2	7.1
Asian American[a]	223	262	297	357	381	407	429	462	107.2	7.5
American Indian[b]	38	40	42	48	51	55	59	61	60.5	4.5
Nonresident Alien	282	292	302	324	343	357	366	365	29.4	-0.4
TWO-YEAR INSTITUTIONS	4,527	4,680	4,868	5,240	5,652	5,722	5,566	5,530	22.2	-0.6
White (non-Hispanic)	3,514	3,584	3,702	3,954	4,199	4,131	3,961	3,850	9.6	-2.8
Total Minority	961	1,043	1,107	1,218	1,381	1,500	1,514	1,588	65.2	4.9
African American (non-Hispanic)	459	467	473	524	578	602	599	615	34.0	2.6
Hispanic	289	340	384	424	484	545	557	594	105.5	6.7
Asian American[a]	167	186	199	215	256	289	295	312	86.8	5.8
American Indian[b]	46	51	50	55	63	64	63	67	45.7	5.5
Nonresident Alien	53	53	60	67	74	91	91	92	73.6	0.8

Source: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, *Trends in Enrollment in Higher Education by Racial/Ethnic Category: Fall 1982 through Fall 1992*. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Education, January 1994. U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, *Enrollment in Higher Education: Fall 1986 through Fall 1994*. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Education, 1996.

Note: Because of underreporting/nonreporting of racial/ethnic data, figures prior to 1986 were estimated when possible. Also, due to rounding, details may not add to totals. Percent changes for 1993 to 1994 were calculated prior to rounding. Data for fall 1993 have been revised from previously published figures.

[a] Asian American includes Pacific Islanders.

[b] American Indian includes Alaska Natives.

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Table 4

Total Enrollment in Higher Education by Control of Institution, Race/Ethnicity, and Gender: Selected Years, Fall 1984 to Fall 1994

(Numbers in Thousands)

	1984	1986	1988	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	Percent Change 1984–94	Percent Change 1993–94
MEN	5,860	5,885	5,998	6,284	6,502	6,524	6,428	6,372	8.7	-0.9
White (non-Hispanic)	4,690	4,647	4,712	4,861	4,962	4,884	4,757	4,645	-1.0	-2.3
Total Minority	939	1,004	1,051	1,177	1,281	1,366	1,395	1,457	55.2	4.1
African American (non-Hispanic)	437	436	443	485	517	537	540	550	25.9	1.1
Hispanic	254	290	310	354	391	428	441	469	94.6	6.3
Asian American[a]	210	239	259	295	325	351	363	385	83.3	6.0
American Indian[b]	38	39	39	43	48	50	51	53	39.5	4.1
Nonresident Alien	231	233	235	246	259	273	276	270	16.9	-1.4
WOMEN	6,375	6,619	7,045	7,535	7,857	7,963	7,878	7,908	24.0	0.4
White (non-Hispanic)	5,125	5,273	5,572	5,862	6,028	5,991	5,849	5,770	12.6	-1.3
Total Minority	1,146	1,234	1,347	1,529	1,672	1,797	1,846	1,951	70.2	5.5
African American (non-Hispanic)	639	646	687	762	818	856	866	899	40.7	3.4
Hispanic	281	328	370	429	476	527	548	588	109.3	7.3
Asian American[a]	180	209	237	278	312	345	361	389	116.1	7.7
American Indian[b]	46	51	53	60	66	69	71	75	63.0	5.7
Nonresident Alien	104	112	126	145	157	175	184	187	79.8	1.7
PUBLIC	9,457	9,714	10,156	10,845	11,310	11,385	11,189	11,134	17.7	-0.5
White (non-Hispanic)	7,543	7,654	7,964	8,385	8,622	8,493	8,227	8,045	6.7	-2.2
Total Minority	1,695	1,836	1,955	2,198	2,411	2,591	2,657	2,787	64.4	4.9
African American (non-Hispanic)	844	854	881	976	1,053	1,100	1,114	1,144	35.5	2.7
Hispanic	456	532	587	671	742	822	851	910	99.6	6.9
Asian American[a]	323	371	406	461	516	566	586	622	92.6	6.0
American Indian[b]	72	79	81	90	100	103	106	111	54.2	4.6
Nonresident Alien	219	224	238	260	275	300	304	302	37.9	-0.8
INDEPENDENT	2,661	2,790	2,887	2,975	3,049	3,102	3,116	3,145	18.2	0.9
White (non-Hispanic)	2,272	2,267	2,319	2,338	2,368	2,382	2,373	2,371	4.4	-0.1
Total Minority	389	402	443	506	542	572	589	620	59.4	5.3
African American (non-Hispanic)	232	228	248	271	282	292	298	304	31.0	1.9
Hispanic	79	86	93	111	125	133	138	147	86.1	6.8
Asian American[a]	67	77	91	112	121	131	138	152	126.9	10.2
American Indian[b]	11	11	11	12	14	16	15	17	54.5	8.1
Nonresident Alien	116	120	123	131	141	148	153	155	33.6	1.3

Source: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, *Trends in Enrollment in Higher Education by Racial/Ethnic Category: Fall 1982 through Fall 1992*. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Education, January 1994. U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, *Enrollment in Higher Education: Fall 1984 through Fall 1994*. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Education, 1996.

Note: Because of underreporting/nonreporting of racial/ethnic data, data prior to 1986 were estimated when possible. Also, due to rounding, details may not add to totals. Percent changes for 1993 to 1994 were calculated prior to rounding. Data for fall 1993 have been revised from previously published figures.

[a] Asian American includes Pacific Islanders.

[b] American Indian includes Alaska Natives.

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Table 5

Undergraduate, Graduate, and Professional School Enrollment in Higher Education by Race/Ethnicity: Selected Years, Fall 1984 to Fall 1994

(Numbers in Thousands)

	1984	1985	1988	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	Percent Change 1984–94	Percent Change 1993–94
UNDERGRADUATE TOTAL	10,611	10,798	11,304	11,959	12,439	12,537	12,323	12,263	15.6	-0.5
White (non-Hispanic)	8,484	8,558	8,907	9,273	9,506	9,387	9,100	8,905	5.0	-2.1
Total Minority	1,911	2,036	2,192	2,468	2,698	2,892	2,955	3,088	61.6	4.5
African American (non-Hispanic)	995	996	1,039	1,147	1,229	1,280	1,290	1,317	32.4	2.1
Hispanic	495	563	631	725	804	888	918	979	97.8	6.7
Asian American[a]	343	393	437	501	559	613	634	674	96.5	6.2
American Indian[b]	78	83	86	95	106	111	113	118	51.3	4.5
Nonresident Alien	216	205	205	219	234	258	268	270	25.0	0.6
GRADUATE TOTAL	1,343	1,435	1,472	1,586	1,639	1,669	1,688	1,723	28.3	2.0
White (non-Hispanic)	1,087	1,133	1,153	1,228	1,258	1,267	1,274	1,287	18.4	1.0
Total Minority	141	167	167	190	205	218	232	256	81.6	10.3
African American (non-Hispanic)	67	72	76	84	89	94	102	111	65.7	8.2
Hispanic	32	46	39	47	51	55	58	64	100.0	10.3
Asian American[a]	37	43	46	53	58	62	65	73	97.3	11.2
American Indian[b]	5	5	6	6	7	7	7	8	60.0	11.0
Nonresident Alien	115	136	151	167	177	184	182	180	56.5	-1.3
PROFESSIONAL SCHOOL TOTAL	277	267	274	281	281	281	292	295	6.5	0.8
White (non-Hispanic)	243	231	223	222	224	221	226	224	-7.8	-0.8
Total Minority	31	36	39	47	50	54	60	64	106.5	6.7
African American (non-Hispanic)	13	14	14	16	17	18	20	21	61.5	2.5
Hispanic	8	9	9	11	11	12	13	13	62.5	4.9
Asian American[a]	9	11	14	19	21	23	25	28	211.1	10.4
American Indian[b]	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	2	100.0	10.0
Nonresident Alien	3	4	5	5	6	6	7	7	133.3	2.0

Source: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics. *Trends in Enrollment in Higher Education by Racial/Ethnic Category: Fall 1982 through Fall 1992*. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Education, January 1994. U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics. *Enrollment in Higher Education: Fall 1984 through Fall 1994*. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Education, 1996.

Note: Because of underreporting/nonreporting of racial/ethnic data, data prior to 1986 were estimated when possible. Also, due to rounding, details may not add to totals. Percent changes for 1993 to 1994 were calculated prior to rounding. Data for fall 1993 have been revised from previously published figures.

[a] Asian American includes Pacific Islanders.

[b] American Indian includes Alaska Natives.

Table 6

Enrollment at Historically Black Colleges and Universities by Race/Ethnicity: Selected Years, Fall 1984 to Fall 1994

	1984	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	Percent Change 1984–94	Percent Change 1993–94
Number of HBCUs[a]	104	104	104	106	104	104	102	107	107	107		
Total Enrollment	216,050	213,114	217,670	230,758	238,946	248,697	258,509	277,261	284,247	280,915	30.0	-1.2
African American (non-Hispanic)	175,110	176,610	182,020	192,848	199,974	207,547	213,904	224,946	230,078	229,046	30.8	-0.4
White (non-Hispanic)	23,450	22,784	23,227	25,767	26,962	29,601	31,085	36,203	37,375	36,045	53.7	-3.6
Asian American[b]	1,350	1,207	1,187	1,473	1,568	1,724	2,009	2,151	2,357	2,374	75.9	0.7
Hispanic	1,560	1,486	1,590	1,746	1,859	1,797	2,131	4,755	5,021	5,186	232.4	3.3
American Indian[c]	240	482	449	254	307	338	388	447	518	586	144.2	13.1
Nonresident Alien	14,340	10,545	8,897	8,671	8,273	7,690	7,489	7,360	6,757	6,262	-56.3	-7.3

Source: National Association for Equal Opportunity Research Institute. U.S. Department of Education, Office for Civil Rights, unpublished data, fall 1984–1993. Annual Fall Enrollment Survey 1986–1994.

Note: Detail does not add to total because the race/ethnicity unknown data are included in the total. 1994 race/ethnicity unknown data total 1,416. The total number of HBCUs in 1994 was 107, of which 102 are members of the National Association for Equal Opportunity in Higher Education (NAFEO).

[a] These figures represent the number of institutions reporting their enrollment each year.

[b] Asian American includes Pacific Islanders.

[c] American Indian includes Alaska Natives.

Table 7

African American Enrollment at Historically Black Colleges and Universities by Control of Institution and Gender, Fall 1986 to Fall 1994

	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	Percent Change 1986–94	Percent Change 1993–94
NUMBER OF HBCUs	104	104	106	104	104	102	107	107	107		
ALL HBCUs	176,610	182,020	192,848	199,974	207,547	213,904	224,946	230,078	229,046	29.7	-0.4
Men	73,495	74,447	77,741	79,462	82,587	85,713	90,831	92,397	91,667	24.7	-0.8
Women	103,115	107,573	115,107	120,512	124,960	128,191	134,115	137,681	137,379	33.2	-0.2
PUBLIC HBCUs	120,930	124,749	132,067	137,190	143,763	150,707	156,623	159,581	158,888	31.4	-0.4
Men	50,592	51,177	53,206	54,400	57,070	60,147	63,389	63,890	63,702	25.9	-0.3
Women	70,338	73,572	78,861	82,790	86,693	90,560	93,234	95,691	95,186	35.3	-0.5
INDEPENDENT HBCUs	55,680	57,271	60,781	62,784	63,784	63,197	68,323	70,497	70,158	26.0	-0.5
Men	22,903	23,270	24,535	25,062	25,517	25,566	27,442	28,507	27,965	22.1	-1.9
Women	32,777	34,001	36,246	37,722	38,267	37,631	40,881	41,990	42,193	28.7	0.5

Source: National Association for Equal Opportunity Research Institute. Annual Fall Enrollment Survey 1986–1994.

Note: The total number of HBCUs in 1994 was 107, of which 102 are members of the National Association for Equal Opportunity in Higher Education (NAFEO).

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Table 8

Associate Degrees by Race/Ethnicity and Gender for Selected Years, 1985 to 1993

	1985		1990		1991		1992		1993		Percent Change 1985–93	Percent Change 1992–93
	Total	Percent	Total	Percent	Total	Percent	Total	Percent	Total	Percent		
Total	429,815	100.0	450,263	100.0	462,030	100.0	494,387	100.0	508,154	100.0	18.2	2.8
Men[a]	190,409	44.3	188,631	41.9	190,221	41.2	202,808	41.0	209,051	41.1	9.8	3.1
Women[b]	239,406	55.7	261,632	58.1	271,809	58.8	291,579	59.0	299,103	58.9	24.9	2.6
White (non-Hispanic)[c]	355,343	82.7	369,580	82.1	376,081	81.4	400,530	81.0	405,883	79.9	14.2	1.3
Men[d]	157,278	82.6	154,748	82.0	155,330	81.7	164,799	81.3	167,312	80.0	6.4	1.5
Women[e]	198,065	82.7	214,832	82.1	220,751	81.2	235,731	80.8	238,571	79.8	20.5	1.2
Minority	68,065	15.8	74,565	16.6	79,305	17.2	85,920	17.4	93,342	18.4	37.1	8.6
Men	29,443	15.5	30,942	16.4	31,741	16.7	34,615	17.1	37,961	18.2	28.9	9.7
Women	38,630	16.1	43,623	16.7	47,564	17.5	51,305	17.6	55,381	18.5	43.4	7.9
African American (non-Hispanic)	35,799	8.3	35,327	7.8	37,657	8.2	39,411	8.0	42,340	8.3	18.3	7.4
Men	14,192	7.5	13,147	7.0	13,718	7.2	14,294	7.0	15,497	7.4	9.2	8.4
Women	21,607	9.0	22,180	8.5	23,939	8.8	25,117	8.6	26,843	9.0	24.2	6.9
Hispanic	19,407	4.5	22,195	4.9	24,251	5.2	26,905	5.4	29,991	5.9	54.5	11.5
Men	8,561	4.5	9,859	5.2	10,210	5.4	11,536	5.7	12,924	6.2	51.0	12.0
Women	10,846	4.5	12,336	4.7	14,041	5.2	15,369	5.3	17,067	5.7	57.4	11.0
Asian American[f]	9,914	2.3	13,482	3.0	13,725	3.0	15,596	3.2	16,632	3.3	67.8	6.6
Men	5,492	2.9	6,477	3.4	6,440	3.4	7,254	3.6	7,877	3.8	43.4	8.6
Women	4,422	1.8	7,005	2.7	7,285	2.7	8,342	2.9	8,755	2.9	98.0	5.0
American Indian[g]	2,953	0.7	3,530	0.8	3,672	0.8	4,008	0.8	4,379	0.9	48.3	9.3
Men	1,198	0.6	1,433	0.8	1,373	0.7	1,531	0.8	1,663	0.8	38.8	8.6
Women	1,755	0.7	2,097	0.8	2,299	0.8	2,477	0.8	2,716	0.9	54.8	9.6
Nonresident Alien	6,407	1.5	6,149	1.4	6,644	1.4	7,937	1.6	8,929	1.8	39.4	12.5
Men	3,696	1.9	2,967	1.6	3,150	1.7	3,394	1.7	3,778	1.8	2.2	11.3
Women	2,711	1.1	3,182	1.2	3,494	1.3	4,543	1.6	5,151	1.7	90.0	13.4

Source: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics. *Digest of Education Statistics*. Washington, DC: Office of Educational Research and Improvement, 1995.

Note: As of academic year 1989, data on degrees conferred by race/ethnicity were released annually instead of biannually.

[a] Degrees awarded to men as a percentage of all associate degrees awarded that year.

[b] Degrees awarded to women as a percentage of all associate degrees awarded that year.

[c] Degrees awarded to this group as a percentage of all associate degrees awarded that year.

[d] Degrees awarded to men in this group as a percentage of all associate degrees awarded to men that year.

[e] Degrees awarded to women in this group as a percentage of all associate degrees awarded to women that year.

[f] Asian American includes Pacific Islanders.

[g] American Indian includes Alaska Natives.

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Table 9

Bachelor's Degrees by Race/Ethnicity and Gender for Selected Years, 1985 to 1993

	1985		1990		1991		1992		1993		Percent Change 1985–93	Percent Change 1992–93
	Total	Percent	Total	Percent	Total	Percent	Total	Percent	Total	Percent		
Total	968,311	100.0	1,048,631	100.0	1,081,280	100.0	1,129,883	100.0	1,159,931	100.0	19.8	2.7
Men[a]	476,148	49.2	490,317	46.8	496,424	45.9	516,976	45.8	530,541	45.7	11.4	2.6
Women[b]	492,163	50.8	558,314	53.2	584,856	54.1	612,857	54.2	629,390	54.3	27.9	2.7
White (non-Hispanic)[c]	826,106	85.3	884,376	84.3	904,062	83.6	936,771	82.9	947,309	81.7	14.7	1.1
Men[d]	405,065	85.1	413,573	84.3	415,505	83.7	429,842	83.1	435,084	82.0	7.4	1.2
Women[e]	421,021	85.5	470,803	84.3	488,557	83.5	506,929	82.7	512,225	81.4	21.7	1.0
Minority	112,988	11.7	137,551	13.1	148,084	13.7	164,983	14.6	180,382	15.6	59.6	9.3
Men	50,972	10.7	59,785	12.2	63,065	12.7	70,362	13.6	76,490	14.4	50.1	8.7
Women	62,106	12.6	77,766	13.9	85,019	14.5	94,621	15.4	103,892	16.5	67.3	9.8
African American (non-Hispanic)	57,473	5.9	61,063	5.8	65,341	6.0	72,326	6.4	77,872	6.7	35.5	7.7
Men	23,018	4.8	23,262	4.7	24,328	4.9	26,956	5.2	28,883	5.4	25.5	7.1
Women	34,455	7.0	37,801	6.8	41,013	7.0	45,370	7.4	48,989	7.8	42.2	8.0
Hispanic	25,874	2.7	32,844	3.1	36,612	3.4	40,761	3.6	45,376	3.9	75.4	11.3
Men	12,402	2.6	14,941	3.0	16,158	3.3	17,976	3.5	19,865	3.7	60.2	10.5
Women	13,472	2.7	17,903	3.2	20,454	3.5	22,785	3.7	25,511	4.1	89.4	12.0
Asian American[f]	25,395	2.6	39,248	3.7	41,618	3.8	46,720	4.1	51,463	4.4	102.7	10.2
Men	13,554	2.8	19,721	4.0	20,678	4.2	23,248	4.5	25,293	4.8	86.6	8.8
Women	11,841	2.4	19,527	3.5	20,940	3.6	23,472	3.8	26,170	4.2	121.0	11.5
American Indian[g]	4,246	0.4	4,392	0.4	4,513	0.4	5,176	0.5	5,671	0.5	33.6	9.6
Men	1,998	0.4	1,859	0.4	1,901	0.4	2,182	0.4	2,449	0.5	22.6	12.2
Women	2,248	0.5	2,533	0.5	2,612	0.4	2,994	0.5	3,222	0.5	43.3	7.6
Nonresident Alien	29,217	3.0	26,708	2.5	29,134	2.7	26,079	2.5	32,240	2.8	10.3	14.8
Men	20,091	4.2	16,961	3.5	17,854	3.6	16,772	3.2	18,967	3.6	-5.6	13.1
Women	9,126	1.9	9,747	1.7	11,280	1.9	11,307	1.8	13,273	2.1	45.4	17.4

Source: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics. *Digest of Education Statistics*. Washington, DC: Office of Educational Research and Improvement, 1995.

Note: As of academic year 1989, degrees conferred by race/ethnicity were released annually instead of biannually.

[a] Degrees awarded to men as a percentage of all bachelor's degrees awarded that year.

[b] Degrees awarded to women as a percentage of all bachelor's degrees awarded that year.

[c] Degrees awarded to this group as a percentage of all bachelor's degrees awarded that year.

[d] Degrees awarded to men in this group as a percentage of all bachelor's degrees awarded to men that year.

[e] Degrees awarded to women in this group as a percentage of all bachelor's degrees awarded to women that year.

[f] Asian American includes Pacific Islanders.

[g] American Indian includes Alaska Natives.

Table 10

Master's Degrees by Race/Ethnicity and Gender for Selected Years, 1985 to 1993

	1985		1990		1991		1992		1993		Percent Change 1985–93	Percent Change 1992–93
	Total	Percent	Total	Percent	Total	Percent	Total	Percent	Total	Percent		
Total	280,421	100.0	322,465	100.0	328,645	100.0	348,682	100.0	368,701	100.0	31.5	5.7
Men[a]	139,417	49.7	152,926	47.4	151,796	46.2	159,543	45.8	168,754	45.8	21.0	5.8
Women[b]	141,004	50.3	169,539	52.6	176,849	53.8	189,139	54.2	199,947	54.2	41.8	5.7
White (non-Hispanic)[c]	223,628	79.7	251,690	78.1	255,281	77.7	268,371	77.0	278,829	75.6	24.7	3.9
Men[d]	106,059	76.1	112,877	73.8	111,224	73.3	116,096	72.8	120,225	71.2	13.4	3.6
Women[e]	117,569	83.4	138,813	81.9	144,057	81.5	152,275	80.5	158,604	79.3	34.9	4.2
Minority	29,841	10.6	35,074	10.9	36,841	11.2	41,405	11.9	45,718	12.4	53.2	10.4
Men	13,684	9.8	15,590	10.2	16,157	10.6	17,771	11.1	19,686	11.7	43.9	10.8
Women	16,157	11.5	19,484	11.5	20,684	11.7	23,634	12.5	26,032	13.0	61.1	10.1
African American (non-Hispanic)	13,939	5.0	15,446	4.8	16,139	4.9	18,116	5.2	19,780	5.4	41.9	9.2
Men	5,200	3.7	5,539	3.6	5,709	3.8	6,054	3.8	6,821	4.0	31.2	12.7
Women	8,739	6.2	9,907	5.8	10,430	5.9	12,062	6.4	12,959	6.5	48.3	7.4
Hispanic	6,864	2.4	7,950	2.5	8,386	2.6	9,358	2.7	10,665	2.9	55.4	14.0
Men	3,059	2.2	3,586	2.3	3,670	2.4	4,132	2.6	4,735	2.8	54.8	14.6
Women	3,805	2.7	4,364	2.6	4,716	2.7	5,226	2.8	5,930	3.0	55.8	13.5
Asian American[f]	7,782	2.8	10,577	3.3	11,180	3.4	12,658	3.6	13,866	3.8	78.2	9.5
Men	4,842	3.5	6,002	3.9	6,319	4.2	7,062	4.4	7,544	4.5	55.8	6.8
Women	2,940	2.1	4,575	2.7	4,861	2.7	5,596	3.0	6,322	3.2	115.0	13.0
American Indian[g]	1,256	0.4	1,101	0.3	1,136	0.3	1,273	0.4	1,407	0.4	12.0	10.5
Men	583	0.4	463	0.3	459	0.3	523	0.3	586	0.3	0.5	12.0
Women	673	0.5	638	0.4	677	0.4	750	0.4	821	0.4	22.0	9.5
Nonresident Alien	26,952	9.6	35,701	11.1	36,523	11.1	38,906	11.2	44,154	12.0	63.8	13.5
Men	19,674	14.1	24,459	16.0	24,415	16.1	25,676	16.1	28,843	17.1	46.6	12.3
Women	7,278	5.2	11,242	6.6	12,108	6.8	13,230	7.0	15,311	7.7	110.4	15.7

Source: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics. *Digest of Education Statistics*. Washington, DC: Office of Educational Research and Improvement, 1995.

Note: As of academic year 1989, data on degrees conferred by race/ethnicity were released annually instead of biannually.

[a] Degrees awarded to men as a percentage of all master's degrees awarded that year.

[b] Degrees awarded to women as a percentage of all master's degrees awarded that year.

[c] Degrees awarded to this group as a percentage of all master's degrees awarded that year.

[d] Degrees awarded to men in this group as a percentage of all master's degrees awarded to men that year.

[e] Degrees awarded to women in this group as a percentage of all master's degrees awarded to women that year.

[f] Asian American includes Pacific Islanders.

[g] American Indian includes Alaska Natives.

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Table 11

First-Professional Degrees by Race/Ethnicity and Gender for Selected Years, 1985 to 1993

	1985		1990		1991		1992		1993		Percent Change 1985–93	Percent Change 1992–93
	Total	Percent	Total	Percent	Total	Percent	Total	Percent	Total	Percent		
Total	71,057	100.0	70,744	100.0	71,515	100.0	72,129	100.0	74,960	100.0	5.5	3.9
Men[a]	47,501	66.8	43,778	61.8	43,601	61.0	43,812	60.7	44,821	59.8	-5.6	2.3
Women[b]	23,556	33.2	26,966	38.1	27,914	39.0	28,317	39.3	30,139	40.2	27.9	6.4
White (non-Hispanic)[c]	63,219	89.0	60,240	85.2	60,327	84.4	59,800	82.9	60,830	81.1	-3.8	1.7
Men[d]	42,630	89.7	37,850	86.5	37,348	85.7	36,939	84.3	37,157	82.9	-12.8	0.6
Women[e]	20,589	87.4	22,390	83.0	22,979	82.3	22,861	80.7	23,673	78.5	15.0	3.6
Minority	6,977	9.8	9,456	13.4	10,118	14.1	11,077	15.4	12,612	16.8	80.8	13.9
Men	4,190	8.8	5,220	11.9	5,500	12.6	5,988	13.7	6,587	14.7	57.2	10.0
Women	2,787	11.8	4,236	15.7	4,618	16.5	5,089	18.0	6,025	20.0	116.2	18.4
African American (non-Hispanic)	3,029	4.3	3,410	4.8	3,575	5.0	3,560	4.9	4,100	5.5	35.4	15.2
Men	1,623	3.4	1,672	3.8	1,672	3.8	1,603	3.7	1,777	4.0	9.5	10.9
Women	1,406	6.0	1,738	6.4	1,903	6.8	1,957	6.9	2,323	7.7	65.2	18.7
Hispanic	1,884	2.7	2,427	3.4	2,527	3.5	2,766	3.8	2,984	4.0	58.4	7.9
Men	1,239	2.6	1,450	3.3	1,506	3.5	1,635	3.7	1,762	3.9	42.2	7.8
Women	645	2.7	977	3.6	1,021	3.7	1,131	4.0	1,222	4.1	89.5	8.0
Asian American[f]	1,816	2.6	3,362	4.8	3,755	5.3	4,455	6.2	5,160	6.9	184.1	15.8
Men	1,152	2.4	1,963	4.5	2,178	5.0	2,593	5.9	2,858	6.4	148.1	10.2
Women	664	2.8	1,399	5.2	1,577	5.6	1,862	6.6	2,302	7.6	246.7	23.6
American Indian[g]	248	0.3	257	0.4	261	0.4	296	0.4	368	0.5	48.4	24.3
Men	176	0.4	135	0.3	144	0.3	157	0.4	190	0.4	8.0	21.0
Women	72	0.3	122	0.5	117	0.4	139	0.5	178	0.6	147.2	28.1
Nonresident Alien	861	1.2	1,048	1.5	1,070	1.5	1,252	1.7	1,518	2.0	76.3	21.2
Men	681	1.4	708	1.6	753	1.7	885	2.0	1,077	2.4	58.1	21.7
Women	180	0.8	340	1.3	317	1.1	367	1.3	441	1.5	145.0	20.2

Source: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics. *Digest of Education Statistics*. Washington, DC: Office of Educational Research and Improvement, 1995.

Note: As of academic year 1989, data on degrees conferred by race/ethnicity were released annually instead of biannually.

[a] Degrees awarded to men as a percentage of all first-professional degrees awarded that year.

[b] Degrees awarded to women as a percentage of all first-professional degrees awarded that year.

[c] Degrees awarded to this group as a percentage of all first-professional degrees awarded that year.

[d] Degrees awarded to men in this group as a percentage of all first-professional degrees awarded to men that year.

[e] Degrees awarded to women in this group as a percentage of all first-professional degrees awarded to women that year.

[f] Asian American includes Pacific Islanders.

[g] American Indian includes Alaska Natives.

Table 12

Degrees Conferred by Historically Black Colleges and Universities by Race/Ethnicity and Level, Selected Years, 1982–83 to 1992–93

ASSOCIATE DEGREES

	Number of Degrees Conferred							Degrees from Historically Black Colleges and Universities as a Percent of Total Associate Degrees						
Year	Total	White (non-Hispanic)	African American	Hispanic	Asian American	American Indian	Non-Resident Alien	Total	White (non-Hispanic)	African American	Hispanic	Asian American	American Indian	Non-Resident Alien
1982–83	2,482	795	1,442	132	12	2	99	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
1984–85	2,691	880	1,547	162	26	5	71	0.6	0.2	4.3	0.8	0.3	0.2	1.1
1986–87	2,612	796	1,571	174	26	9	36	0.6	0.2	4.4	0.9	0.2	0.3	0.8
1988–89	2,526	825	1,487	134	17	3	60	0.6	0.2	4.3	0.7	0.1	0.1	0.9
1989–90	2,489	793	1,477	153	11	13	42	0.6	0.2	4.2	0.7	0.1	0.4	0.7
1990–91	2,540	830	1,373	132	19	0	92	0.5	0.2	3.8	0.6	0.1	0.0	1.5
1991–92	2,421	838	1,340	111	25	3	33	0.5	0.2	3.5	0.4	0.2	0.1	0.4
1992–93	2,670	1,102	1,338	171	21	4	20	0.5	0.3	3.2	0.6	0.1	0.1	0.2

BACHELOR'S DEGREES

	Number of Degrees Conferred							Degrees from Historically Black Colleges and Universities as a Percent of Total Bachelor's Degrees						
1982–83	22,205	1,487	17,787	108	74	33	2,716	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
1984–85	20,887	1,870	16,326	218	321	46	2,106	2.2	0.2	28.4	0.8	1.3	1.1	7.2
1986–87	20,270	1,819	16,589	121	135	54	1,552	2.0	0.2	29.3	0.4	0.4	1.4	5.3
1988–89	19,518	2,016	16,162	92	113	33	1,102	1.9	0.2	27.8	0.3	0.3	0.8	4.1
1989–90	19,734	2,212	16,325	111	176	19	891	1.9	0.3	26.7	0.3	0.5	0.4	3.3
1990–91	21,511	2,270	17,069	105	142	27	819	2.0	0.3	27.1	0.3	0.4	0.7	2.9
1991–92	23,462	2,573	19,623	149	183	35	745	2.1	0.3	27.6	0.4	0.4	0.7	2.6
1992–93	25,997	2,883	21,739	146	219	47	695	2.2	0.3	28.4	0.3	0.4	0.8	2.2

MASTER'S DEGREES

	Number of Degrees Conferred							Degrees from Historically Black Colleges and Universities as a Percent of Total Master's Degrees						
1982–83	4,491	774	2,956	31	60	5	665	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
1984–85	4,190	799	2,555	34	58	20	724	1.5	0.4	18.3	0.5	0.7	1.6	2.7
1986–87	4,012	844	2,443	25	155	10	535	1.4	0.4	17.6	0.4	1.8	0.9	1.8
1988–89	3,904	885	2,388	37	119	8	467	1.3	0.4	16.9	0.5	1.2	0.7	1.4
1989–90	4,036	1,103	2,352	34	117	13	417	1.3	0.4	15.3	0.4	1.1	1.2	1.2
1990–91	4,114	1,076	2,482	24	108	0	352	1.2	0.4	16.3	0.3	1.0	0.0	0.9
1991–91	4,184	1,114	2,59	44	104	8	369	1.2	0.4	14.9	0.5	0.8	0.7	0.9
1992–93	4,590	1,167	2,746	38	158	7	462	1.2	0.4	14.6	0.4	1.2	0.5	1.0

DOCTORAL DEGREES

	Number of Degrees Conferred							Degrees from Historically Black Colleges and Universities as a Percent of Total Doctoral Degrees						
1982–83	135	6	85	0	3	0	41	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
1984–85	174	22	105	0	2	0	45	0.5	0.1	9.1	0.0	0.2	0.0	0.8
1986–87	194	23	114	0	7	0	50	0.6	0.1	10.8	0.0	0.6	0.0	0.8
1988–89	187	11	128	0	4	0	44	0.5	a	12.0	0.0	0.3	0.0	0.6
1989–90	207	20	143	1	0	0	43	0.5	0.1	12.5	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.5
1990–91	200	28	127	0	0	0	30	0.5	0.1	12.2	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.3
1991–92	205	47	119	2	2	0	39	0.5	0.2	9.9	0.3	0.1	0.0	0.4
1992–93	219	31	128	1	6	0	47	0.5	0.1	9.7	0.1	0.4	0.0	0.4

FIRST-PROFESSIONAL DEGREES

	Number of Degrees Conferred							Degrees from Historically Black Colleges and Universities as a Percent of Total First-Professional Degrees						
1982–83	866	97	693	25	1	1	49	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
1984–85	962	165	693	28	5	3	68	1.4	0.3	22.9	1.5	0.3	1.2	7.9
1986–87	872	142	618	15	23	20	54	1.2	0.2	18.1	0.7	1.0	6.6	6.1
1988–89	693	132	478	10	16	1	56	1.0	0.2	15.2	0.4	0.5	0.4	5.7
1989–90	820	149	552	33	18	4	64	1.2	0.2	16.3	1.4	0.5	1.6	6.2
1990–91	546	141	317	26	10	0	46	0.8	0.2	8.9	1.0	0.3	0.0	4.3
1991–92	756	172	449	43	16	1	75	1.0	0.3	12.6	1.5	0.3	0.3	5.6
1992–93	966	185	627	55	19	0	80	1.3	0.3	15.4	1.9	0.4	0.0	5.2

Source: Hoffman, Charlene, Thomas D. Snyder and Bill Sonnenberg. *Historically Black Colleges and Universities, 1976–90*. Washington, DC: Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, July 1992. U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS), "Completions" surveys. (Analysis done by the American Council on Education's Division of Policy Analysis and Research, November 1995).

Note: Data in this table exclude persons whose racial/ethnic identification was not available. Because of rounding, details may not add to totals.

— Data not available.

Table 13

Degrees Conferred by Hispanic-Serving Institutions by Race/Ethnicity and Level, 1990–91 to 1992–93

ASSOCIATE DEGREES

	Number of Degrees Conferred							Degrees from Hispanic-Serving Institutions as a Percent of Total Associate Degrees						
Year	Total	White (non-Hispanic)	African American	Hispanic	Asian American	American Indian	Non-Resident Alien	Total	White (non-Hispanic)	African American	Hispanic	Asian American	American Indian	Non-Resident Alien
1990–91	23,725	7,657	2,905	9,465	1,201	128	670	5.1	2.0	7.7	39.0	8.7	3.5	10.1
1991–92	22,529	7,123	2,984	9,431	1,207	115	820	4.5	1.8	7.7	36.1	8.0	3.0	10.3
1992–93	33,986	11,324	5,115	12,696	2,373	227	1,473	6.6	2.9	12.4	43.8	14.8	5.4	16.4

BACHELOR'S DEGREES

	Number of Degrees Conferred							Degrees from Hispanic-Serving Institutions as a Percent of Total Bachelor's Degrees						
1990–91	17,618	7,257	1,086	6,857	815	80	699	1.6	0.8	1.7	18.7	2.0	1.8	2.4
1991–92	17,397	7,085	1,283	6,959	976	92	608	1.5	0.8	1.8	17.3	2.1	1.8	2.1
1992–93	20,529	8,188	1,672	8,111	1,276	95	733	1.8	0.9	2.2	18.2	2.5	1.7	2.3

MASTER'S DEGREES

	Number of Degrees Conferred							Degrees from Hispanic-Serving Institutions as a Percent of Total Master's Degrees						
1990–91	5,015	2,634	239	1,111	158	21	382	1.5	1.0	1.5	13.3	1.4	1.8	1.0
1991–92	5,025	2,914	284	1,111	154	15	422	1.4	1.1	1.6	12.3	1.3	1.2	1.1
1992–93	6,047	3,339	340	1,411	183	32	635	1.6	1.3	1.8	13.9	1.4	2.4	1.4

DOCTORAL DEGREES

	Number of Degrees Conferred							Degrees from Hispanic-Serving Institutions as a Percent of Total Doctoral Degrees						
1990–91	99	55	0	15	0	0	18	0.0	0.0	0.0	2.0	0.0	0.0	0.2
1991–92	101	64	1	10	1	1	24	0.2	0.3	0.1	1.3	0.1	0.8	0.2
1992–93	111	71	5	13	1	N/A	21	0.3	0.3	0.4	1.6	0.1	N/A	0.2

FIRST–PROFESSIONAL DEGREES

	Number of Degrees Conferred							Degrees from Hispanic-Serving Institutions as a Percent of Total First-Professional Degrees						
1990–91	216	179	3	26	2	1	3	0.3	0.3	0.1	1.0	0.1	0.4	0.3
1991–92	367	288	18	44	3	2	0	0.5	0.5	0.5	1.6	0.1	0.7	0.0
1992–93	396	333	6	38	2	1	N/A	0.5	0.6	0.1	1.3	0.0	0.3	N/A

Source: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS) "Completions" survey. (Analysis done by the American Council on Education's Division of Policy Analysis and Research, December 1995).

Note: Hispanic-serving institutions are those two-year and four-year institutions at which Hispanics constitute a minimum of 25 percent of the enrollment. In 1990–91, there were 95 Hispanic-serving institutions, compared with 103 in 1991–92 and 121 in 1992–93. Data exclude persons whose racial/ethnic group was not available. Therefore, the sum of the details may not equal the total.

N/A - Data not available.

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Table 14

Bachelor's Degrees for Selected Fields by Race/Ethnicity and Gender, 1985, 1992, and 1993

Field of Study	TOTAL 1985 Total	TOTAL 1992 Total	TOTAL 1993 Total	TOTAL Percent Change 1985–93	TOTAL Percent Change 1992–93	MINORITIES 1985 Total	MINORITIES 1992 Total	MINORITIES 1993 Total	MINORITIES Percent Change 1985–93	MINORITIES Percent Change 1992–93
EDUCATION										
Total	87,786	108,006	107,781	22.8	-0.2	9,242	9,973	10,307	11.5	3.3
Men	21,146	22,686	23,233	9.9	2.4	2,571	2,384	2,479	-3.6	4.0
Women	66,642	85,320	84,548	26.9	-0.9	6,671	7,589	7,828	17.3	3.1
BUSINESS										
Total	231,308	256,603	256,842	11.0	0.1	26,965	38,311	41,606	54.3	8.6
Men	126,762	135,440	135,573	7.0	0.1	12,569	16,584	18,134	44.3	9.3
Women	104,546	121,163	121,269	16.0	0.1	14,396	21,727	23,472	63.0	8.0
SOCIAL SCIENCES										
Total	90,795	133,974	135,703	49.5	1.3	11,427	21,072	22,515	97.0	6.8
Men	50,789	73,001	73,589	44.9	0.8	5,566	9,844	10,443	87.6	6.1
Women	40,006	60,973	62,114	55.3	1.9	5,861	11,226	12,072	106.0	7.5
HEALTH PROFESSIONS										
Total	63,289	61,720	67,089	6.0	8.7	6,965	8,580	9,614	38.0	12.1
Men	9,534	10,189	11,347	19.0	11.4	1,140	1,514	1,787	56.8	18.0
Women	53,755	51,531	55,742	3.7	8.2	5,829	7,066	7,827	34.3	10.8
BIOLOGICAL/LIFE SCIENCES										
Total	38,115	42,942	47,036	23.4	9.5	5,397	8,774	10,057	86.3	14.6
Men	19,905	20,798	22,842	14.8	9.8	2,598	3,934	4,602	77.1	17.0
Women	18,210	22,143	24,196	32.9	9.3	2,799	4,840	5,455	94.9	12.7
ENGINEERING[a]										
Total	94,560	77,396	77,877	-17.6	0.6	10,727	13,680	14,222	32.6	4.0
Men	82,095	66,574	66,670	-18.8	0.1	8,765	10,913	11,290	28.8	3.5
Women	12,465	10,822	11,207	-10.1	3.6	1,962	2,767	2,932	49.4	6.0

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Source: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, *Race/Ethnicity Trends in Degrees Conferred by Institutions of Higher Education: 1984–85 through 1990–91*. Washington, DC: Office of Educational Research and Improvement, August 1993; and National Center for Education Statistics, *Digest of Education Statistics*. Washington, DC: Office of Educational Research and Improvement, 1995.

Note: Some institutions did not report racial/ethnic data for earned degrees. Data for some of these nonreporting institutions were imputed. Data represent programs, not organizational units, within institutions. Because of rounding, details may not add to totals.

[a] Engineering includes engineering technologies.

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Table 14 - Continued

Bachelor's Degrees for Selected Fields by Race/Ethnicity and Gender, 1985, 1992, and 1993

	HISPANIC					AFRICAN AMERICAN				
Field of Study	1985 Total	1992 Total	1993 Total	Percent Change 1985–93	Percent Change 1992–93	1985 Total	1992 Total	1993 Total	Percent Change 1985–93	Percent Change 1992–93
EDUCATION										
Total	2,533	3,116	2,973	17.4	-4.6	5,456	5,226	5,590	2.5	7.0
Men	597	717	657	10.1	-8.4	1,569	1,266	1,380	-12.0	9.0
Women	1,936	2,399	2,316	19.6	-3.5	3,887	3,960	4,210	8.3	6.3
BUSINESS										
Total	5,771	8,466	9,588	66.1	13.3	14,999	18,304	19,187	27.9	4.8
Men	2,988	4,194	4,711	57.7	12.3	6,442	7,167	7,644	18.7	6.7
Women	2,783	4,272	4,877	75.2	14.2	8,557	11,137	11,543	34.9	3.6
SOCIAL SCIENCES										
Total	2,846	5,808	6,067	113.2	4.5	6,100	9,188	9,964	63.3	8.4
Men	1,557	2,914	2,992	92.2	2.7	2,778	3,978	4,277	54.0	7.5
Women	1,289	2,894	3,075	138.6	6.3	3,322	5,210	5,687	71.2	9.2
HEALTH PROFESSIONS										
Total	1,550	1,765	2,009	29.6	13.8	3,836	4,222	4,744	23.7	12.4
Men	309	355	457	47.9	28.7	484	543	688	42.1	26.7
Women	1,241	1,410	1,552	25.1	10.1	3,352	3,679	4,056	21.0	10.2
BIOLOGICAL/LIFE SCIENCES										
Total	1,241	1,673	1,855	49.5	10.9	2,045	2,428	2,784	36.1	14.7
Men	681	797	909	33.5	14.1	806	764	898	11.4	17.5
Women	560	876	946	68.9	8.0	1,239	1,664	1,886	52.2	13.3
ENGINEERING[a]										
Total	2,242	2,645	2,934	30.9	10.9	3,159	3,580	3,698	17.1	3.3
Men	1,935	2,214	2,437	25.9	10.1	2,435	2,583	2,684	10.2	3.9
Women	307	431	497	61.9	15.3	724	997	1,014	40.1	1.7

Continued on next page

[a] Engineering includes engineering technologies

Table 14 - Continued

Bachelor's Degrees for Selected Fields by Race/Ethnicity and Gender, 1985, 1992, and 1993

	WHITE					ASIAN AMERICAN[a]				
Field of Study	1985 Total	1992 Total	1993 Total	Percent Change 1985–93	Percent Change 1992–93	1985 Total	1992 Total	1993 Total	Percent Change 1985–93	Percent Change 1992–93
EDUCATION										
Total	77,531	97,460	96,857	24.9	-0.6	770	977	1,100	42.9	12.6
Men	18,119	20,096	20,538	13.4	2.2	240	246	288	20.0	17.1
Women	59,412	77,364	76,319	28.5	-1.4	530	731	812	53.2	11.1
BUSINESS										
Total	196,915	209,768	205,083	4.1	-2.2	5,274	10,592	11,780	123.4	11.2
Men	109,130	113,660	111,478	2.2	-1.9	2,644	4,761	5,249	98.5	10.2
Women	87,785	96,108	93,605	6.6	-2.6	2,630	5,831	6,531	148.3	12.0
SOCIAL SCIENCES										
Total	77,117	110,086	109,942	42.6	-0.1	2,034	5,470	5,712	180.8	4.4
Men	43,787	61,613	61,332	40.1	-0.5	1,002	2,661	2,802	179.6	5.3
Women	33,330	48,473	48,610	45.8	0.3	1,032	2,809	2,910	182.0	3.6
HEALTH PROFESSIONS										
Total	55,501	52,281	56,464	1.7	8.0	1,310	2,261	2,513	91.8	11.1
Men	8,114	8,428	9,282	14.4	10.1	298	554	573	92.3	3.4
Women	47,387	43,853	47,182	-0.4	7.6	1,012	1,707	1,940	91.7	13.6
BIOLOGICAL/LIFE SCIENCES										
Total	31,807	33,179	35,766	12.4	7.8	1,950	4,488	5,203	166.8	15.9
Men	16,805	16,386	17,673	5.2	7.9	1,022	2,278	2,690	163.2	18.1
Women	15,002	16,793	18,093	20.6	7.7	928	2,210	2,513	170.8	13.7
ENGINEERING[b]										
Total	76,438	59,772	58,732	-23.2	-0.4	5,013	7,181	7,307	45.8	1.8
Men	66,478	52,135	50,949	-23.4	-1.0	4,132	5,881	5,933	43.6	0.9
Women	9,960	7,637	7,783	-21.9	3.2	881	1,300	1,374	56.0	5.7

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[a] Asian American includes Pacific Islanders.

[b] Engineering includes engineering technologies.

Table 14 - Continued

Bachelor's Degrees for Selected Fields by Race/Ethnicity and Gender, 1985, 1992, and 1993

	AMERICAN INDIAN [a]					NONRESIDENT ALIEN				
Field of Study	1985 Total	1992 Total	1993 Total	Percent Change 1985–93	Percent Change 1992–93	1985 Total	1992 Total	1993 Total	Percent Change 1985–93	Percent Change 1992–93
EDUCATION										
Total	483	654	644	33.3	-1.5	1,015	573	617	-39.2	7.7
Men	165	155	154	-6.7	-0.6	456	206	216	-52.6	4.9
Women	318	499	490	54.1	-1.8	559	367	401	-28.3	9.3
BUSINESS										
Total	921	949	1,051	14.1	10.7	7,428	8,524	10,153	36.7	19.1
Men	495	462	530	7.1	14.7	5,063	5,196	5,961	17.7	14.7
Women	426	487	521	22.3	7.0	2,365	3,328	4,192	77.3	26.0
SOCIAL SCIENCES										
Total	447	606	772	72.7	27.4	2,251	2,816	3,246	44.2	15.3
Men	229	291	372	62.4	27.8	1,436	1,544	1,814	26.3	17.5
Women	218	315	400	83.5	27.0	815	1,272	1,432	75.7	12.6
HEALTH PROFESSIONS										
Total	273	332	348	27.5	4.8	819	859	1,011	23.4	17.7
Men	49	62	69	40.8	11.3	280	247	278	-0.7	12.6
Women	224	270	279	24.6	3.3	539	612	733	36.0	19.8
BIOLOGICAL/LIFE SCIENCES										
Total	161	185	215	33.5	16.2	911	988	1,215	33.4	23.0
Men	89	95	105	18.0	10.5	502	478	567	12.9	18.6
Women	72	90	110	52.8	22.2	409	510	648	58.4	27.1
ENGINEERING[b]										
Total	313	274	283	-9.6	3.3	7,395	4,722	4,923	-33.4	4.3
Men	263	235	236	-10.3	0.4	6,852	4,211	4,431	-35.3	5.2
Women	50	39	47	-6.0	20.5	543	511	492	-9.4	-3.7

[a] American Indian includes Alaska Natives.

[b] Engineering includes engineering technologies.

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Table 15

Master's Degrees for Selected Fields by Race/Ethnicity and Gender, 1985, 1992, and 1993

	TOTAL					MINORITIES				
Field of Study	1985 Total	1992 Total	1993 Total	Percent Change 1985–93	Percent Change 1992–93	1985 Total	1992 Total	1993 Total	Percent Change 1985–93	Percent Change 1992–93
EDUCATION										
Total	98,380	92,668	96,028	-2.4	3.6	9,600	10,931	11,756	22.5	7.5
Men	28,079	21,244	22,197	-20.9	4.5	2,370	2,534	2,869	21.1	13.2
Women	70,301	71,424	73,831	5.0	3.4	7,230	8,397	8,887	22.9	5.8
BUSINESS										
Total	57,541	84,642	89,615	55.7	5.9	6,117	9,765	11,288	84.5	15.6
Men	43,045	54,705	57,651	33.9	5.4	4,024	5,421	6,401	59.1	18.1
Women	14,496	29,937	31,964	120.5	6.8	2,093	4,344	4,887	133.5	12.5
SOCIAL SCIENCES										
Total	11,917	12,702	13,471	13.0	6.1	1,065	1,349	1,535	44.1	13.8
Men	7,442	7,237	7,671	3.1	6.0	649	695	825	27.1	18.7
Women	4,475	5,465	5,800	29.6	6.1	416	654	710	70.7	8.6
HEALTH PROFESSIONS										
Total	16,515	23,065	25,718	55.7	11.5	1,652	2,528	2,923	76.9	15.6
Men	4,316	4,691	5,227	21.1	11.4	456	572	629	37.9	10.0
Women	12,199	18,374	20,491	68.0	11.5	1,196	1,956	2,294	91.8	17.3
PUBLIC AFFAIRS										
Total	17,130	19,243	20,634	20.5	7.2	2,577	3,318	3,719	44.3	12.1
Men	6,704	5,769	6,105	-8.9	5.8	958	977	1,101	14.9	12.7
Women	10,426	13,474	14,529	39.4	7.8	1,619	2,341	2,618	61.7	11.8
ENGINEERING [a]										
Total	16,358	25,977	28,726	75.6	10.6	2,322	3,574	3,777	62.7	5.7
Men	14,998	22,143	24,454	63.0	10.4	2,039	2,883	3,002	47.2	4.1
Women	1,360	3,834	4,272	214.1	11.4	283	691	775	173.9	12.2

Continued on next page

Source: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics. *Race/Ethnicity Trends in Degrees Conferred by Institutions of Higher Education: 1984–85 through 1990–91*. Washington, DC: Office of Educational Research and Improvement, August 1993, and National Center for Education Statistics. *Digest of Education Statistics*. Washington, DC: Office of Educational Research and Improvement, 1995.

Note: Some institutions did not report racial/ethnic data for earned degrees. Data for some of these nonreporting institutions were imputed. Data represent programs, not organizational units, within institutions. Because of rounding, details may not add to totals.

[a] Engineering includes engineering technologies.

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Table 15 — Continued

Master's Degrees for Selected Fields by Race/Ethnicity and Gender, 1985, 1992, and 1993

	HISPANIC					AFRICAN AMERICAN				
	1985 Total	1992 Total	1993 Total	Percent Change 1985–93	Percent Change 1992–93	1985 Total	1992 Total	1993 Total	Percent Change 1985–93	Percent Change 1992–93
EDUCATION										
Total	2,519	2,838	3,181	26.3	12.1	5,812	6,444	6,725	15.7	4.4
Men	668	745	835	25.0	12.1	1,325	1,345	1,523	14.9	13.2
Women	1,851	2,093	2,346	26.7	12.1	4,487	5,099	5,202	15.9	2.0
BUSINESS										
Total	1,175	1,944	2,241	90.7	15.3	2,601	3,966	4,474	72.0	12.8
Men	812	1,223	1,432	76.4	17.1	1,574	1,900	2,184	38.8	14.9
Women	363	721	809	122.9	12.2	1,027	2,066	2,290	123.0	10.8
SOCIAL SCIENCES										
Total	272	301	396	45.6	31.6	422	602	645	52.8	7.1
Men	159	168	247	55.3	47.0	234	293	330	41.0	12.6
Women	113	133	149	31.9	12.0	188	309	315	67.6	1.9
HEALTH PROFESSIONS										
Total	296	559	638	115.5	14.1	819	1,136	1,301	58.9	14.5
Men	89	1,142	158	77.5	11.3	179	180	217	21.2	20.6
Women	207	417	480	131.9	15.1	640	956	1,084	69.4	13.4
PUBLIC AFFAIRS										
Total	617	771	890	44.2	15.4	1,600	2,001	2,271	41.9	13.5
Men	221	253	294	33.0	16.2	592	527	633	6.9	20.1
Women	396	518	596	50.5	15.1	1,008	1,474	1,638	62.5	11.1
ENGINEERING [a]										
Total	340	541	635	86.8	17.4	360	550	640	77.8	16.4
Men	299	452	527	76.3	16.6	300	398	459	53.0	15.3
Women	41	89	108	163.4	21.3	60	152	181	201.7	19.1

Continued on next page

[a] Engineering includes engineering technologies.

Table 15 — Continued

Master's Degrees for Selected Fields by Race/Ethnicity and Gender, 1985, 1992, and 1993

	WHITE					ASIAN AMERICAN[a]				
	1985 Total	1992 Total	1993 Total	Percent Change 1985–93	Percent Change 1992–93	1985 Total	1992 Total	1993 Total	Percent Change 1985–93	Percent Change 1992–93
EDUCATION										
Total	63,302	78,874	81,290	28.4	3.1	801	1,192	1,391	73.7	16.7
Men	17,047	17,653	18,341	7.6	3.9	238	308	369	55.0	19.8
Women	46,255	61,221	62,949	36.1	2.8	563	884	1,022	81.5	15.6
BUSINESS										
Total	54,663	65,320	66,535	21.7	1.9	2,070	3,635	4,304	107.9	18.4
Men	37,256	42,668	43,235	16.0	1.3	1,449	2,175	2,627	81.3	20.8
Women	17,407	22,652	23,300	33.9	2.9	621	1,460	1,677	170.0	14.9
SOCIAL SCIENCES										
Total	7,333	9,034	9,474	29.2	4.9	328	396	422	28.7	6.6
Men	4,326	5,084	5,276	22.0	3.8	231	216	205	-11.3	-5.1
Women	3,007	3,950	4,198	39.6	6.3	97	180	217	123.7	20.6
HEALTH PROFESSIONS										
Total	14,565	19,220	21,328	46.4	11.0	476	739	864	81.5	16.9
Men	3,170	3,575	3,987	25.8	11.5	174	226	233	33.9	3.1
Women	11,395	15,645	17,341	52.2	10.8	302	513	631	108.9	23.0
PUBLIC AFFAIRS										
Total	13,849	15,231	16,130	16.5	5.9	271	422	466	72.0	10.4
Men	5,254	4,386	4,536	-13.7	3.4	112	150	143	27.7	-4.7
Women	8,595	10,845	11,594	34.9	6.9	159	272	323	103.1	18.8
ENGINEERING[b]										
Total	12,600	14,368	15,651	24.2	8.9	1,573	2,432	2,441	55.2	0.4
Men	11,012	12,148	13,270	20.5	9.2	1,395	1,990	1,970	41.2	-1.0
Women	1,588	2,220	2,381	49.9	7.3	178	442	471	164.6	6.6

Continued on next page

[a] Asian American includes Pacific Islanders

[b] Engineering includes engineering technologies

Table 15 — Continued

Master's Degrees for Selected Fields by Race/Ethnicity and Gender, 1985, 1992, and 1993

	AMERICAN INDIAN[a]					NONRESIDENT ALIEN				
	1985 Total	1992 Total	1993 Total	Percent Change 1985–93	Percent Change 1992–93	1985 Total	1992 Total	1993 Total	Percent Change 1985–92	Percent Change 1992–93
EDUCATION										
Total	468	457	459	-1.9	0.4	2,919	2,863	2,982	2.2	4.2
Men	139	136	142	2.2	4.4	1,427	1,057	987	-30.8	-6.6
Women	329	321	317	-3.6	-1.2	1,492	1,806	1,995	33.7	10.5
BUSINESS										
Total	271	220	269	-0.7	22.3	5,816	9,557	11,792	102.8	23.4
Men	189	123	158	-16.4	28.5	4,604	6,616	8,015	74.1	21.1
Women	82	97	111	35.4	14.4	1,212	2,941	3,777	211.6	28.4
SOCIAL SCIENCES										
Total	43	50	72	67.4	44.0	1,825	2,319	2,462	34.9	6.2
Men	25	18	43	72.0	138.9	1,323	1,458	1,570	18.7	7.7
Women	18	32	29	61.1	-9.4	502	861	892	77.7	3.6
HEALTH PROFESSIONS										
Total	61	94	120	96.7	27.7	845	1,317	1,467	73.6	11.4
Men	14	24	21	50.0	-12.5	426	544	611	43.4	12.3
Women	47	70	99	110.6	41.4	419	773	856	104.3	10.7
PUBLIC AFFAIRS										
Total	89	124	92	3.4	-25.8	704	694	785	11.5	13.1
Men	33	47	31	-6.1	-34.0	492	406	468	-4.9	15.3
Women	56	77	61	8.9	-20.8	212	288	317	49.5	10.1
ENGINEERING[b]										
Total	49	51	61	24.5	19.6	5,813	8,035	9,298	60.0	15.7
Men	45	43	46	2.2	7.0	5,454	7,112	8,182	50.0	15.0
Women	4	8	15	275.0	87.5	359	923	1,116	210.9	20.9

[a] American Indian includes Alaska Natives.

[b] Engineering includes engineering technologies.

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Table 16

Doctoral Degrees by U.S. Citizenship, Race/Ethnicity, and Gender, 1984 to 1994

	1984	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	Percent Change 1984–94	Percent Change 1993–94
TOTAL DOCTORATES[a]	31,337	31,298	31,899	32,367	33,499	34,324	36,068	37,517	38,853	39,755	41,011	30.9	3.2
Men	20,638	20,554	20,594	20,939	21,681	21,812	22,962	23,647	24,433	24,649	25,205	22.1	2.3
Women	10,699	10,744	11,305	11,428	11,818	12,512	13,106	13,870	14,420	15,106	15,806	47.7	4.6
U.S. CITIZENS[b]													
All U.S. Citizens	24,027	23,370	23,083	22,983	23,290	23,400	24,906	25,559	25,975	26,408	27,105	12.8	2.6
Men	14,730	14,223	13,637	13,575	13,725	13,396	14,166	14,376	14,500	14,493	14,710	-0.1	1.5
Women	9,297	9,147	9,446	9,408	9,565	10,004	10,740	11,183	11,475	11,915	12,395	33.3	4.0
White	21,350	20,763	20,629	20,462	20,783	20,892	22,169	22,413	22,876	23,230	23,787	11.4	2.4
Men	13,171	12,810	12,308	12,168	12,343	11,988	12,689	12,675	12,822	12,849	13,037	-1.0	1.5
Women	8,179	7,953	8,321	8,294	8,440	8,904	9,480	9,738	10,054	10,381	10,750	31.4	3.6
African American	953	912	823	768	814	821	898	1,003	961	1,107	1,092	14.6	-1.4
Men	427	379	323	317	315	327	351	417	392	439	407	-4.7	-7.3
Women	526	533	500	451	499	494	547	586	569	668	685	30.2	2.5
Hispanic	534	561	572	617	595	581	721	731	778	830	882	65.2	6.3
Men	313	300	302	332	321	307	380	370	410	422	437	39.6	3.6
Women	221	261	270	285	274	274	341	361	368	408	445	101.4	9.1
Asian American[c]	512	516	530	542	614	626	641	786	837	889	949	85.4	6.7
Men	338	329	347	369	414	441	427	481	528	551	591	74.9	7.3
Women	174	187	183	173	200	185	214	305	309	338	358	105.7	5.9
American Indian[d]	74	96	99	115	94	94	96	130	149	120	142	91.9	18.3
Men	54	40	58	62	52	49	52	74	82	60	71	31.5	18.3
Women	20	56	41	53	42	45	44	56	67	60	71	255.0	18.3
NON-U.S. CITIZENS													
Total	6,056	6,552	6,709	7,188	7,816	8,272	9,791	11,165	11,928	12,175	13,134	116.9	7.9
Men	5,026	5,394	5,482	5,839	6,297	6,581	7,822	8,740	9,251	9,320	9,951	98.0	6.8
Women	1,030	1,158	1,227	1,349	1,519	1,691	1,969	2,425	2,677	2,855	3,183	209.0	11.5

Source: National Research Council, Doctorate Records File, various years.

[a] Includes doctorates earned by individuals with unknown citizenship status and unknown race/ethnicity.

[b] Includes doctorates earned by individuals with unknown race/ethnicity.

[c] Asian American includes Pacific Islanders.

[d] American Indian includes Alaska Natives.

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Table 17

Doctoral Degrees by Field, U.S. Citizenship, and Race/Ethnicity, 1984, 1992, 1993, and 1994

TOTAL

	1984	1992	1993	1994	Percent Change 1993–94
Total Doctorates[a]	31,337	38,853	39,755	41,011	3.2
American Indian	74	152	121	145	19.8
Asian	3,394	8,276	8,657	9,359	8.1
Black	1,494	1,421	1,610	1,669	3.7
Hispanic	916	1,400	1,426	1,529	7.2
White	23,402	25,879	26,413	27,073	2.5
U.S. Citizens[b]	24,027	25,975	26,408	27,105	2.6
American Indian[c]	74	149	120	145	20.8
Asian American[d]	512	837	889	949	6.7
African American	953	961	1,107	1,092	-1.4
Hispanic	534	778	830	882	6.3
White	21,350	22,876	23,230	23,787	2.4

PHYSICAL SCIENCES

	1984	1992	1993	1994	Percent Change 1993–94
Total Doctorates[a]	4,438	6,502	6,496	6,821	5.0
American Indian	8	17	11	11	0.0
Asian	793	2,117	2,103	2,297	9.2
Black	79	82	89	113	27.0
Hispanic	98	199	202	200	-1.0
White	3,172	3,780	3,799	3,973	4.6
U.S. Citizens[b]	3,138	3,540	3,475	3,623	4.3
American Indian[c]	8	17	11	11	0.0
Asian American[d]	106	178	182	179	-1.6
African American	35	34	41	52	26.8
Hispanic	53	88	89	99	11.2
White	2,831	3,156	3,109	3,250	4.5

ENGINEERING

	1984	1992	1993	1994	Percent Change 1993–94
Total Doctorates[a]	2,907	5,439	5,696	5,826	2.3
American Indian	3	11	2	7	250.0
Asian	1,030	2,447	2,599	2,712	4.3
Black	67	73	82	88	7.3
Hispanic	59	137	142	160	12.7
White	1,516	2,441	2,590	2,615	1.0
U.S. Citizens[b]	1,245	2,109	2,225	2,211	-0.6
American Indian[c]	3	11	2	7	250.0
Asian American[d]	95	213	218	202	-7.3
African American	12	32	41	44	7.3
Hispanic	22	57	56	49	-12.5
White	1,064	1,749	1,888	1,882	-0.3

LIFE SCIENCES

	1984	1992	1993	1994	Percent Change 1993–94
Total Doctorates[a]	5,751	7,114	7,397	7,734	4.6
American Indian	12	20	15	24	60.0
Asian	573	1,617	1,774	1,973	11.2
Black	193	204	251	286	13.9
Hispanic	102	279	297	329	10.8
White	4,478	4,718	4,813	4,913	2.1
U.S. Citizens[b]	4,551	4,707	4,827	4,947	2.5
American Indian[c]	12	19	14	24	71.4
Asian American[d]	133	179	219	246	12.3
African American	75	87	122	116	-4.9
Hispanic	54	114	126	146	15.9
White	4,171	4,241	4,301	4,365	1.5

SOCIAL SCIENCES

	1984	1992	1993	1994	Percent Change 1993–94
Total Doctorates[a]	5,907	6,217	6,545	6,624	1.2
American Indian	10	26	19	27	42.1
Asian	383	752	828	914	10.4
Black	285	266	300	317	5.7
Hispanic	124	280	284	263	-7.4
White	4,571	4,561	4,862	4,874	0.2
U.S. Citizens[b]	4,742	4,673	4,934	4,998	1.3
American Indian[c]	10	26	19	27	42.1
Asian American[d]	67	97	104	132	26.9
African American	193	183	205	200	-2.4
Hispanic	127	175	182	176	-3.3
White	4,257	4,121	4,396	4,411	0.3

HUMANITIES

	1984	1992	1993	1994	Percent Change 1993–94
Total Doctorates[a]	3,532	4,443	4,481	4,743	5.8
American Indian	5	20	13	24	84.6
Asian	129	343	380	425	11.8
Black	128	137	152	141	-7.2
Hispanic	62	197	200	245	22.5
White	2,868	3,553	3,552	3,778	6.4
U.S. Citizens[b]	2,946	3,468	3,510	3,713	5.8
American Indian[c]	5	19	13	24	84.6
Asian American[d]	28	52	60	68	13.3
African American	93	95	95	102	7.4
Hispanic	99	107	130	138	6.2
White	2,639	3,148	3,171	3,348	5.6

EDUCATION

	1984	1992	1993	1994	Percent Change 1993–94
Total Doctorates[a]	6,782	6,640	6,647	6,683	0.5
American Indian	32	51	50	36	-28.0
Asian	285	461	454	485	6.8
Black	632	548	607	582	-4.1
Hispanic	136	347	240	269	12.1
White	5,294	5,165	5,097	5,172	1.5
U.S. Citizens[b]	5,892	5,816	5,746	5,842	1.7
American Indian[c]	32	50	50	36	-28.0
Asian American[d]	60	78	82	80	-2.4
African American	483	463	512	482	-5.9
Hispanic	145	200	211	225	6.6
White	5,065	4,977	4,861	4,973	2.3

PROFESSIONAL-OTHER

	1984	1992	1993	1994	Percent Change 1993–94
Total Doctorates[a]	1,938	2,498	2,492	2,580	3.5
American Indian	4	7	10	16	60.0
Asian	197	539	515	553	7.4
Black	103	111	125	142	13.6
Hispanic	30	61	64	63	-1.6
White	1,423	1,661	1,673	1,748	4.5
U.S. Citizens[b]	1,437	1,662	1,660	1,771	6.7
American Indian[c]	4	7	10	16	60.0
Asian American[d]	23	40	26	42	61.5
African American	57	67	90	96	6.7
Hispanic	34	37	40	49	22.5
White	1,277	1,484	1,476	1,558	5.6

Source: National Research Council, Doctorate Records File, various years.

[a] Total Doctorates figure includes individuals who did not report their citizenship at time of doctorate and those who did not report their racial/ethnic background.

[b] Includes individuals who did not report their racial/ethnic background.

[c] American Indian includes Alaska Natives.

[d] Asian American includes Pacific Islanders.

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Table 18

NCAA Division I Graduation Rates by Type of Institution, Race/Ethnicity, and Gender, 1990 to 1994

	1990[a] (percent)	1991[b] (percent)	1992[c] (percent)	1993[d] (percent)	1994[e] (percent)	Percent Change
ALL INSTITUTIONS						
Total	53	54	55	56	57	4
African American	31	33	34	37	38	7
American Indian[f]	29	31	32	36	37	8
Hispanic	40	41	44	45	45	5
Asian American[g]	62	61	65	66	65	3
White	56	56	58	59	59	3
WOMEN						
Total	54	55	57	58	58	4
African American	34	36	36	41	41	7
American Indian[f]	31	33	32	38	40	9
Hispanic	42	44	46	48	48	6
Asian American[g]	64	64	67	70	67	3
White	57	58	60	61	61	4
MEN						
Total	51	52	54	54	55	4
African American	28	30	30	33	34	6
American Indian[f]	28	28	32	33	34	6
Hispanic	38	39	41	42	42	4
Asian American[g]	60	58	63	63	62	2
White	54	55	56	57	57	3
PUBLIC						
Total	49	50	52	53	53	4
African American	28	30	31	34	36	8
American Indian[f]	27	28	30	33	34	7
Hispanic	35	36	39	41	41	6
Asian American[g]	58	57	62	63	60	2
White	52	53	54	55	56	4
INDEPENDENT						
Total	67	69	70	71	70	3
African American	49	51	52	56	51	2
American Indian[f]	48	52	45	57	58	10
Hispanic	64	65	64	66	66	2
Asian American[g]	74	77	77	80	78	4
White	70	71	72	73	72	2

Source: The National Collegiate Athletic Association, Division I Graduation Report, 1991-92, 1992-93, 1993, 1994, 1995.

[a] Graduation rates are based on full-time degree-seeking students at 297 NCAA Division I institutions. This six-year completion rate is based on the 1984–85 freshman cohort and includes all students who graduated by August 1990.

[b] Graduation rates are based on full-time degree-seeking students at 298 NCAA Division I institutions. This six-year completion rate is based on the 1985–86 freshman cohort and includes all students who graduated by August 1991.

[c] Graduation rates are based on full-time degree-seeking students at 298 NCAA Division I institutions. This six-year completion rate is based on the 1986–87 freshman cohort and includes all students who graduated by August 1992.

[d] Graduation rates are based on full-time degree-seeking students at 301 NCAA Division I institutions. This six-year completion rate is based on the 1987–88 freshman cohort and includes all students who graduated by August 1993.

[e] Graduation rates are based on full-time degree-seeking students at 302 NCAA Division I institutions. This six-year completion rate is based on the 1988–89 freshman cohort and includes all students who graduated by August 1994.

[f] American Indian includes Alaska Natives.

[g] Asian American includes Pacific Islanders.

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Table 19

Full-Time Faculty in Higher Education by Race/Ethnicity and Gender for 1983, 1991, and 1993

	1983 Total	Percent	1991 Total	Percent	1993 Total	Percent	Percent Change 1983–93	Percent Change 1991–93
TOTAL	485,739	100.0	520,551	100.0	533,770	100.0	9.9	2.5
Men	356,579	73.4	355,257	68.2	354,302	66.4	-0.6	-0.3
Women	129,160	26.6	165,294	31.8	179,468	33.6	39.0	8.6
White (non-Hispanic)	440,505	90.7	456,316	87.7	468,770	87.8	6.4	2.7
Men	326,171	91.5	313,267	88.2	313,278	88.4	-4.0	0.0
Women	114,334	88.5	143,049	86.5	155,492	86.6	36.0	8.7
TOTAL MINORITY	45,234	9.3	64,235	12.3	65,000	12.2	43.7	1.2
Men	30,408	8.5	41,990	11.8	41,024	11.6	34.9	-2.3
Women	14,826	11.5	22,245	13.5	23,976	13.4	61.7	7.8
African American (non-Hispanic)	19,571	4.0	24,611	4.7	25,658	4.8	31.1	4.3
Men	10,541	3.0	13,107	3.7	13,385	3.8	27.0	2.1
Women	9,030	7.0	11,504	7.0	12,273	6.8	35.9	6.7
Hispanic	7,456	1.5	11,424	2.2	12,076	2.3	62.0	5.7
Men	5,240	1.5	7,347	2.1	7,459	2.1	42.3	1.5
Women	2,216	1.7	4,077	2.5	4,617	2.6	108.3	13.2
Asian American[a]	16,899	3.5	26,545	5.1	25,269	4.7	49.5	-4.8
Men	13,677	3.8	20,520	5.8	18,943	5.3	38.5	-7.7
Women	3,222	2.5	6,025	3.6	6,326	3.5	96.3	5.0
American Indian[b]	1,308	0.3	1,655	0.3	1,997	0.4	52.7	20.7
Men	950	0.3	1,016	0.3	1,237	0.3	30.2	21.8
Women	358	0.3	639	0.4	760	0.4	112.3	18.9

Source: U.S. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission, "EEO–6 Higher Education Staff Information" surveys, 1983 and 1991. U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, "EEO–6 Higher Education Staff Information" surveys, 1993.

Note: Details may not add to totals because of rounding. Includes full-time faculty who are in nontenured earning positions, tenured faculty, and faculty who are nontenured but in positions that lead to consideration for tenure. Employment counts are based on the following number of higher education institutions each year: 3,011 in 1983; 3,285 in 1991; and 3,385 in 1993. Data for 1983 and 1991 are based on reported counts and are not imputed for nonreporting institutions, while 1993 data were imputed for nonreporting institutions. Figures shown here may not agree with tables showing tenure data because some respondents provided total faculty counts by race but did not further categorize by tenure status.

[a] Asian American includes Pacific Islanders.

[b] American Indian includes Alaska Natives.

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Table 20

Full-Time Faculty by Academic Rank by Race/Ethnicity and Gender, 1983, 1991, and 1993

FULL PROFESSOR

	TOTAL					MEN					WOMEN				
	1983	1991	1993	Percent Change 1983–93	Percent Change 1991–93	1983	1991	1993	Percent Change 1983–93	Percent Change 1991–93	1983	1991	1993	Percent Change 1983–93	Percent Change 1991–93
Total	128,142	144,341	156,146	21.9	8.2	114,072	123,173	129,594	13.6	5.2	14,070	21,168	26,552	88.7	25.4
Participation Rate (%)	100.0	100.0	100.0			89.0	85.3	83.0			11.0	14.7	17.0		
White (non-Hispanic)	119,219	132,065	141,848	19.0	7.4	106,554	113,097	118,308	11.0	4.6	12,665	18,968	23,540	85.9	24.1
Participation Rate (%)	93.0		90.8			83.2	78.4	75.8			9.9	13.1	15.1		
Total Minority	8,923	12,276	14,298	60.2	16.5	7,518	10,076	11,286	50.1	12.0	1,405	2,200	3,012	114.4	36.9
Participation Rate (%)	7.0	8.5	9.2			5.9	7.0	7.2			1.1	1.5	1.9		
African American	2,857	3,572	4,526	58.4	26.7	2,034	2,466	2,982	46.6	20.9	823	1,106	1,544	87.6	39.6
Participation Rate (%)	2.2	2.5	2.9			1.6	1.7	1.9			0.6	0.8	1.0		
Hispanic	1,369	2,038	2,387	74.4	17.1	1,137	1,654	1,776	56.2	7.4	232	384	611	163.4	59.1
Participation Rate (%)	1.1	1.4	1.5			0.9	1.1	1.1			0.2	0.3	0.4		
Asian American[a]	4,466	6,371	7,033	57.5	10.4	4,151	5,721	6,245	50.4	9.2	315	650	788	150.2	21.2
Participation Rate (%)	3.5	4.4	4.5			3.2	4.0	4.0			0.2	0.5	0.5		
American Indian[b]	231	295	352	52.4	19.3	196	235	283	44.4	20.4	35	60	69	97.1	15.0
Participation Rate (%)	0.2	0.2	0.2			0.2	0.2	0.2			0.03	0.04	0.04		

ASSOCIATE PROFESSOR

	TOTAL					MEN					WOMEN				
	1983	1991	1993	Percent Change 1983–93	Percent Change 1991–93	1983	1991	1993	Percent Change 1983–93	Percent Change 1991–93	1983	1991	1993	Percent Change 1983–93	Percent Change 1991–93
Total	111,887	116,631	119,388	6.7	2.4	87,176	84,311	83,430	-4.3	-1.0	24,711	32,320	35,958	45.5	11.3
Participation Rate (%)	100.0	100.0	100.0			77.9	72.3	69.9			22.1	27.7	30.1		
White (non-Hispanic)	102,246	103,918	106,017	3.7	2.0	80,100	75,341	74,191	-7.4	-1.5	22,146	28,577	31,826	43.7	11.4
Participation Rate (%)	91.4	89.1	88.8			71.6	64.6	62.1			19.8	24.5	26.7		
Total Minority	9,641	12,713	13,371	38.7	5.2	7,076	8,970	9,239	30.6	3.0	2,565	3,743	4,132	61.1	10.4
Participation Rate (%)	8.6	10.9	11.2			6.3	7.7	7.7			2.3	3.2	3.5		
African American	3,969	4,942	5,326	34.2	7.8	2,461	2,924	3,089	25.5	5.6	1,508	2,018	2,237	48.3	10.9
Participation Rate (%)	3.5	4.2	4.5			2.2	2.5	2.6			1.3	1.7	1.9		
Hispanic	1,604	2,107	2,291	42.8	8.7	1,210	1,490	1,590	31.4	6.7	394	617	701	77.9	13.6
Participation Rate (%)	1.4	1.8	1.9			1.1	1.3	1.3			0.4	0.5	0.6		
Asian American[a]	3,784	5,391	5,471	44.6	1.5	3,176	4,363	4,367	37.5	0.1	608	1,028	1,104	81.6	7.4
Participation Rate (%)	3.4	4.6	4.6			2.8	3.7	3.7			0.5	0.9	0.9		
American Indian[b]	284	273	283	-0.4	3.7	229	193	193	-15.7	0.0	55	80	90	63.6	12.5
Participation Rate (%)	0.3	0.2	0.2			0.2	0.2	0.2			0.0	0.1	0.1		

ASSISTANT PROFESSOR

	TOTAL					MEN					WOMEN				
	1983	1991	1993	Percent Change 1983–93	Percent Change 1991–93	1983	1991	1993	Percent Change 1983–93	Percent Change 1991–93	1983	1991	1993	Percent Change 1983–93	Percent Change 1991–93
Total	113,330	126,344	124,181	9.6	-1.7	74,166	76,129	70,946	-4.3	-6.8	39,164	50,215	53,235	35.9	6.0
Participation Rate (%)	100.0	100.0	100.0			65.4	60.3	57.1			34.6	39.7	42.9		
White (non-Hispanic)	100,176	106,557	105,091	4.9	-1.4	65,692	63,573	59,709	-9.1	-6.1	34,484	42,984	45,382	31.6	5.6
Participation Rate (%)	88.4	84.3	84.6			58.0	50.3	48.1			30.4	34.0	36.5		
Total Minority	13,154	19,787	19,090	45.1	-3.5	8,474	12,556	11,237	32.6	-10.5	4,680	7,231	7,853	67.8	8.6
Participation Rate (%)	11.6	15.7	15.4			7.5	9.9	9.0			4.1	5.7	6.3		
African American	5,847	7,524	7,686	31.5	2.2	2,964	3,884	3,801	28.2	-2.1	2,883	3,640	3,885	34.8	6.7
Participation Rate (%)	5.2	6.0	6.2			2.6	3.1	3.1			2.5	2.9	3.1		
Hispanic	2,008	3,246	3,387	68.7	4.3	1,389	1,964	1,951	40.5	-0.7	619	1,282	1,436	132.0	12.0
Participation Rate (%)	1.8	2.6	2.7			1.2	1.6	1.6			0.5	1.0	1.2		
Asian American[a]	5,002	8,649	7,586	51.7	-12.3	3,905	6,511	5,277	35.1	-19.0	1,097	2,138	2,309	110.5	8.0
Participation Rate (%)	4.4	6.8	6.1			3.4	5.2	4.2			1.0	1.7	1.9		
American Indian[b]	297	368	431	45.1	17.1	216	197	208	-3.7	5.6	81	171	223	175.3	30.4
Participation Rate (%)	0.3	0.3	0.3			0.2	0.2	0.2			0.1	0.1	0.2		

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Table 20 — Continued

Full-Time Faculty by Academic Rank by Race/Ethnicity and Gender, 1983, 1991, and 1993

INSTRUCTOR AND LECTURER

	TOTAL					MEN					WOMEN				
	1983	1991	1993	Percent Change 1983–93	Percent Change 1991–93	1983	1991	1993	Percent Change 1983–93	Percent Change 1991–93	1983	1991	1993	Percent Change 1983–93	Percent Change 1991–93
Total	91,691	89,357	79,787	-13.0	-10.7	52,477	46,486	39,959	-23.9	-14.0	39,214	42,871	39,828	1.6	-7.1
Participation Rate (%)	100.0	100.0	100.0			57.2	52.0	50.1			42.8	48.0	49.9		
White (non-Hispanic)	81,480	77,142	68,192	-16.3	-11.6	47,179	40,375	34,271	-27.4	-15.1	34,301	36,767	33,921	-1.1	-7.7
Participation Rate (%)	88.9	86.3	85.5			51.5	45.2	43.0			37.4	41.1	42.5		
Total Minority	10,211	12,215	11,595	13.6	-5.1	5,298	6,111	5,688	7.4	-6.9	4,913	6,104	5,907	20.2	-3.2
Participation Rate (%)	11.1	13.7	14.5			5.8	6.8	7.1			5.4	6.8	7.4		
African American	5,735	5,962	5,551	-3.2	-6.9	2,615	2,654	2,471	-5.5	-6.9	3,120	3,308	3,080	-1.3	-6.9
Participation Rate (%)	6.3	6.7	7.0			2.9	3.0	3.1			3.4	3.7	3.9		
Hispanic	2,013	2,929	2,678	33.0	-8.6	1,185	1,604	1,404	18.5	-12.5	828	1,325	1,274	53.9	-3.8
Participation Rate (%)	2.2	3.3	3.4			1.3	1.8	1.8			0.9	1.5	1.6		
Asian American[a]	2,071	2,809	2,700	30.4	-3.9	1,256	1,564	1,390	10.7	-11.1	815	1,245	1,310	60.7	5.2
Participation Rate (%)	2.3	3.1	3.4			1.4	1.8	1.7			0.9	1.4	1.6		
American Indian[b]	392	515	666	69.9	29.3	242	289	423	74.8	46.4	150	226	243	62.0	7.5
Participation Rate (%)	0.4	0.6	0.8			0.3	0.3	0.5			0.2	0.3	0.3		

OTHER FACULTY

	TOTAL					MEN					WOMEN				
	1983	1991	1993	Percent Change 1983–93	Percent Change 1991–93	1983	1991	1993	Percent Change 1983–93	Percent Change 1991–93	1983	1991	1993	Percent Change 1983–93	Percent Change 1991–93
Total	25,623	43,651	54,268	111.8	24.3	15,889	25,012	30,373	91.2	21.4	9,734	18,639	23,895	145.5	28.2
Participation Rate (%)	100.0	100.0	100.0			62.0	57.3	56.0			38.0	42.7	44.0		
White (non-Hispanic)	22,570	36,540	47,622	111.0	30.3	13,899	20,819	26,799	92.8	28.7	8,671	15,721	20,823	140.1	32.5
Participation Rate (%)	88.1	83.7	87.8			54.2	47.7	49.4			33.8	36.0	38.4		
Total Minority	3,053	7,111	6,646	117.7	-6.5	1,990	4,193	3,574	79.6	-14.8	1,063	2,918	3,072	189.0	5.3
Participation Rate (%)	11.9	23.6	12.2			7.8	9.6	6.6			4.1	14.0	5.7		
African American	1,043	2,516	2,569	146.3	2.1	466	1,128	1,042	123.6	-7.6	577	1,388	1,527	164.6	10.0
Participation Rate (%)	4.1	5.8	4.7			1.8	2.6	1.9			2.3	3.2	2.8		
Hispanic	362	1,102	1,333	268.2	21.0	251	641	738	194.0	15.1	111	461	595	436.0	29.1
Participation Rate (%)	1.4	2.5	2.5			1.1	1.5	1.4			0.4	1.0	1.1		
Asian American[a]	1,545	3,290	2,479	60.5	-24.7	1,204	2,322	1,664	38.2	-28.3	341	968	815	139.0	-15.8
Participation Rate (%)	6.0	7.5	4.6			4.7	5.3	3.1			1.3	2.2	1.5		
American Indian[b]	103	203	265	157.3	30.5	69	102	130	88.4	27.5	34	101	135	297.1	33.7
Participation Rate (%)	0.4	0.5	0.5			0.3	0.2	0.2			0.1	0.2	0.2		

Source: U.S. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission, "EEO–6 Higher Education Staff Information" surveys, 1983 and 1991. U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, "EEO–6 Higher Education Staff Information" survey, 1993.

Note: Employment counts are based on the following number of higher education institutions each year: 3,011 in 1983; 3,285 in 1991; and 3,385 in 1993. Data for 1983 and 1991 are based on reported counts and are not imputed for nonreporting institutions, while 1993 data were imputed for nonreporting institutions.

[a] Asian American includes Pacific Islanders.

[b] American Indian includes Alaska Natives.

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Table 21

Tenure Rates of Tenure Track Faculty by Race/Ethnicity and Gender, 1983, 1991, and1993

(Percentages with tenure)

	1983			1991			1993		
	TOTAL	MEN	WOMEN	TOTAL	MEN	WOMEN	TOTAL	MEN	WOMEN
Total	71	75	60	70	75	58	71	76	60
White (non-Hispanic)	72	76	60	72	76	59	73	78	61
Total Minority	63	65	59	59	61	54	62	66	56
African American (non-Hispanic)	62	65	58	58	60	56	61	63	58
Hispanic	67	69	62	61	64	54	63	66	57
Asian American[a]	61	62	55	58	60	49	64	67	52
American Indian[b]	65	66	61	61	68	49	63	72	49

Source: U.S. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission. "EEO–6 Higher Education Staff Information" surveys, 1983 and 1993. U.S. Department of Education. National Center for Education Statistics "EEO-6 Higher Education Staff Information" surveys, 1993.

Note: Details may not add to totals due to rounding. Employment counts are based on the following number of higher education institutions for each year: 3,011 in 1983, 3,265 in 1991, and 3,385 in 1993. Data for 1983 and 1991 are based on reported counts and are not imputed for nonreporting institutions, while 1993 data were imputed for nonreporting institutions.

[a] Asian American includes Pacific Islanders.

[b] American Indian includes Alaska Natives.

Table 22

Full-Time Administrators in Higher Education by Race/Ethnicity and Gender 1983, 1991, and 1993

	1983	Percent	1991	Percent	1993	Percent	Percent Change 1983–93	Percent Change 1991–93
Total	117,486	100.0	136,908	100.0	137,432	100.0	17.0	0.4
Men	79,340	67.5	81,949	59.9	79,829	58.0	0.6	-2.6
Women	38,146	32.5	54,959	40.1	57,603	42.0	51.0	4.8
White (non-Hispanic)	105,420	89.7	118,903	86.8	118,651	86.3	12.6	-0.2
Men	72,126	90.9	72,686	88.7	70,303	88.1	-2.5	-3.3
Women	33,294	87.3	46,217	84.1	48,348	83.9	45.2	4.6
Total Minority	12,066	10.3	18,005	13.2	18,781	13.7	55.7	4.3
Men	7,214	9.1	9,263	11.3	9,526	11.9	32.0	2.8
Women	4,852	12.7	8,742	15.9	9,255	16.1	90.7	5.9
African American (non-Hispanic)	8,362	7.1	11,886	8.7	12,232	8.9	46.3	2.9
Men	4,727	6.0	5,711	7.0	5,904	7.4	24.9	3.4
Women	3,635	9.5	6,175	11.2	6,328	11.0	74.1	2.5
Hispanic	2,040	1.7	3,453	2.5	3,580	2.6	75.5	3.7
Men	1,386	1.7	1,992	2.4	1,963	2.5	41.6	-1.5
Women	654	1.7	1,461	2.7	1,617	2.8	147.2	10.7
Asian American[a]	1,234	1.1	2,163	1.6	2,243	1.6	81.8	3.7
Men	790	1.0	1,275	1.6	1,244	1.6	57.5	-2.4
Women	444	1.2	888	1.6	999	1.7	125.0	12.5
American Indian[b]	430	0.4	503	0.4	726	0.5	68.8	44.3
Men	311	0.4	285	0.3	415	0.5	33.4	45.6
Women	119	0.3	218	0.4	311	0.5	161.3	42.7

Source: U.S. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission. "EEO–6 Higher Education Staff Information" surveys, 1983, 1991, and 1993.

Note: Detail may not add to totals due to rounding. Employment counts are based on the following number of higher education institutions for each year: 3,011 in 1983, 3,265 in 1991, and 3,385 in 1993. Data for 1983 and 1991 are based on reported counts and are not imputed for nonreporting institutions, while 1993 data were imputed for nonreporting institutions.

[a] Asian American includes Pacific Islanders.

[b] American Indian includes Alaska Natives.

Table 23

College and University Chief Executive Officers by Institutional Type, Race/Ethnicity and Gender, 1996

TOTAL CEOs

ALL INSTITUTIONS	4-YEAR INSTITUTIONS	2-YEAR INSTITUTIONS
2,939	1,865	1,074

WHITE CEOs

	ALL INSTITUTIONS	4-YEAR INSTITUTIONS	2-YEAR INSTITUTIONS
Female	384	248	136
Male	1,791	1,160	631
TOTAL	2,175	1,408	767

AFRICAN AMERICAN CEOs

	ALL INSTITUTIONS	4-YEAR INSTITUTIONS	2-YEAR INSTITUTIONS
Female	45	22	23
Male	147	109	38
TOTAL	192	131	61

HISPANIC CEOs[a]

	ALL INSTITUTIONS	4-YEAR INSTITUTIONS	2-YEAR INSTITUTIONS
Female	31	14	17
Male	68	34	34
TOTAL	99	48	51

AMERICAN INDIAN CEOs

	ALL INSTITUTIONS	4-YEAR INSTITUTIONS	2-YEAR INSTITUTIONS
Female	9	1	8
Male	19	7	12
TOTAL	28	8	20

ASIAN CEOs

	ALL INSTITUTIONS	4-YEAR INSTITUTIONS	2-YEAR INSTITUTIONS
Female	2	0	2
Male	18	13	5
TOTAL	20	13	7

UNKNOWN ETHNICITY CEOs

	ALL INSTITUTIONS	4-YEAR INSTITUTIONS	2-YEAR INSTITUTIONS
Female	17	7	10
Male	408	250	158
TOTAL	425	257	168

Source: American Council on Education Corporate Database. Numbers compiled February1996

Note: CEO of a regionally accredited, degree-granting institution in the United States, and outlying areas (e.g., Puerto Rico). The term CEO is defined within the American Council on Education's Corporate Database as the president, Chancellor, Superintendent, Executive Director, Campus Dean, etc., including interim/acting CEOs heading regionally accredited institutions, branches, and affiliates.

[a] This total includes the CEOs that head 31 Puerto Rican institutions. Consequently, there are 68 Hispanic CEOs heading two- and four-year regionally accredited institutions on the mainland.

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